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F o r   F E B R U A R Y ,   1790.

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L I F E   O F   S I R   W I L L I A M   T E M P L E .

W I T H   A N   E L E G A N T   H E A D .

SIR William Temple, an eminent statesman, and a polite writer, descended from an ancient and honorable family, which is said to have assumed the surname of Temple from the manor of Temple, in the hundred of Sparken-Hall, in Leicestershire, was born in London in the year 1628. He was first sent to school at Penshurst, in Kent, under the care of his uncle, the celebrated Dr. Hammond, then minister of that parish; but, at the age of ten, he was removed thence to a school at Bishop-Stortford, in Hertfordshire. When he had acquired a sufficient knowledge of the Greek and Latin he returned home, at the age of fifteen; and, two years after, he went to Cambridge, where he was placed under the tuition of the learned Dr. Cudworth, then fellow of Emanuel College. His father, Sir John Temple, being a statesman, seems to have designed him for the same way of life; and, on this account, after residing at Cambridge two years, which were principally

spent in acquiring a competency of French and Spanish, both languages exceedingly useful for his intended pursuits, he was sent abroad to finish his education.

Mr. Temple began his travels by visiting France, in 1648. As he chose to pass through the Isle of Wight, where his Majesty was detained a prisoner, he there fell in company with the second daughter of Sir Peter Osborn, of Chickland, in Bedfordshire, then governor of Guernsey for the king; and this lady being on a journey with her brother to St. Maloes, where their father then was, our young traveller joined their party. This gave rise to an honorable amour, which, at the end of seven years, concluded in a happy marriage. Having resided two years in France, and learned the French language perfectly, Mr. Temple made a tour through Holland, Flanders, and Germany, during which he became completely master of the Spanish. In 1654 he returned from the continent, and, marrying Miss Osborn,

Osborn, passed his time in retirement with his father, his two brothers, and a sister, then in Ireland, happy in that perfect harmony which has been so often remarked in their family.

As he rejected all offers made him of employment under Cromwell, the five years which he lived in Ireland were spent chiefly in improving himself in history and philosophy; but at the Restoration, in 1660, being chosen a member of the Convention there, while others were trying to make their court to the king, Mr. Temple opposed the poll-bill with so much spirit, that his conduct soon attracted the attention of the public, and brought him into notice. In the succeeding parliament, in 1661, he was elected with his father for the county of Carlow; and, in the year following, he was chosen one of the Commissioners to be sent from that Parliament to the King, which gave him an opportunity of waiting on the Duke of Ormond, the new Lord Lieutenant, then at London. Soon after he went back to Ireland, but with a resolution of quitting that kingdom, and of removing with his family to England.

On his return he met with a very favorable reception from the Duke of Ormond; and soon acquired such a considerable share in his esteem, that the Duke complained of him as the only man in Ireland that had never asked any thing from him. When he mentioned his design of carrying his family to England, his Grace said, that he hoped he would at least give him leave to write in his favor to the two great ministers, Clarendon, then Lord Chancellor, and the Earl of Arlington, who was Secretary of State. This the Duke did in such strong terms, as procured him the friendship of these two noblemen, as well as the good opinion of the King. Mr. Temple, however, made no other use of this advantage than to tell Lord Arlington, that if his Majesty had any employment abroad, which he was fit for, he should be happy to undertake it; but, at the same time, he requested, that he might not be

sent into any of the northern climates, to which he had a very great aversion. Lord Arlington replied, he was very sorry he had made such an objection, as there was no other employment then undisposed of, except that of going envoy to Sweden. However, in 1665, about the beginning of the first Dutch war, Lord Arlington sent a messenger to acquaint him, that he must immediately come to his house, which he did, and found, that his Lordship's business was to tell him, that the King had occasion to send some person abroad, upon an affair of the utmost importance, and that he had resolved to make him the first offer; but that he must know, without delay, and without telling him what it was, whether he would accept of it, and that he must be ready to set out in two or three days, without mentioning it to any of his friends. After a little consideration, Mr. Temple told his Lordship, that, as he took him to be his friend, and as he had advised him not to refuse, as it would be an entrance into his Majesty's service, he should consult no farther. This business was to carry a secret commission to the Bishop of Munster, which he set out with on the second of August, and executed so much to the satisfaction of Charles II. that, on his return to Brussels, his Majesty appointed him resident there, and created him a baronet. As Brussels was a place which he had long wished to reside at, in April, 1666, he sent for his family; but, before their arrival, he had been again obliged to depart upon business to the prelate's court; for the bishop having listened to terms of accommodation with France, Sir William wrote two letters to dissuade him from that alliance, and these not having the desired effect, he went in disguise to Munster, where, though he arrived too late to secure the prince in his first engagement, yet he prevailed on him to permit five or six thousand of his best troops to enter into the Spanish service. In this journey he passed for a Spanish envoy, having twenty Spanish

Spanish guards to attend him. In this manner he first went to Dusseldorp, where the Duke of Newburgh, though in the French interest, gave him a guard to Dortmund; but, when he reached that place, finding the gates shut, he was forced to proceed to a village, at the distance of a league, which, being full of Brandenburg troops, he was under the necessity of lodging in a barn, upon a straw bed, with his page for a pillow. Next day he was entertained at a castle belonging to the bishop of Munster, by one Gorges, a Scotch lieutenant-general in that prelate's service, with what he calls a very episcopal way of drinking. The general coming to the large hall, in which stood a great many flaggons ready charged, he called for wine to drink the king's health. A silver bell, that might hold about two quarts, was upon this brought him, and, as soon as he received it, he pulled out the clapper, and giving it to Sir William, to whom he intended to drink, ordered the bell to be filled. When this was done, he drank off the contents to his Majesty's health; and asking Sir William for the clapper, put it on, and turning down the bell, rang it, to shew that he had drank fair, and left nothing in it. He then took out the clapper, desired Sir William to give it to whomsoever he pleased; and, ordering the bell to be filled again, presented it to Sir William; but as the latter seldom used to drink, he had generally some gentleman with him to supply his place in this respect, whenever it might be necessary. Having finished his business at Munster, he returned to Brussels, where he passed a year with great pleasure and satisfaction.

Two months after the conclusion of the peace with the Dutch at Breda, Sir William's sister, who resided with him at Brussels, being very desirous of seeing Holland, he went thither, incognito, to gratify her desire; but, while he was at the Hague, he paid a private visit to Mr. De Witt, in which he laid the foundation of that

close intimacy which afterwards subsisted between them.

In the spring of 1667, a new war breaking out between France and Spain, which exposed Brussels to the danger of falling into the hands of the former, Sir William sent his lady and family to England; but he himself remained there with his sister till the Christmas following, when he was ordered by the king to come over privately to London. Taking the Hague in his way, he paid another visit to De Witt, and, pursuant to his instructions, proposed those overtures to him which produced the triple alliance. Soon after his arrival at the British court, he returned, on the 16th of January, 1668, with the character of Envoy Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Holland, where, a conference being opened, he brought that treaty to a perfect conclusion in the short space of five days. The ratifications of this alliance being exchanged on the fifteenth of February, he repaired to Brussels, and a treaty being set on foot between France and Spain at Aix-la-Chapelle, he set out for that place on the 24th of April, in quality of his Majesty's Ambassador Extraordinary and Mediator. Here he arrived on the 27th, and it was chiefly owing to his assistance that the Spaniards were brought to sign the articles of that peace on the second of May. This service being completed he returned to Brussels, with a view of remaining there in his former station of Resident; but he received letters from the Earl of Arlington, with the king's order, to continue as Ambassador, and to serve his country in that quality in Holland, as, on account of the late alliances, his Majesty was resolved to renew a character which the crown of England had discontinued there since the time of King James. Sir William being now left at liberty to return to England, embraced the opportunity; and, upon his arrival at London, he was received with every possible demonstration of favor, both by the king and the court.

Setting out again for Holland, with his new character of the king's Ambassador, he arrived at the Hague in the latter end of August, 1668. Here he enjoyed the confidence of that great minister de Witt, and lived in great intimacy with the Prince of Orange, who was then only eighteen years of age; but, in September 1669, he was hurried back to England by Lord Arlington, who ordered him *to put his foot in the stirrup* as soon as he should receive his letter. When Sir William waited on the Earl, he found that he had not one word to say to him; for, after making him attend a long time, he only asked him a few indifferent questions respecting his journey. Next day he was received as coolly by the king; but the secret soon came out, and he was pressed to return to the Hague, and pave the way for a war with Holland. This, however, he excused himself from having any hand in, which so much provoked the Lord Treasurer Clifford, that he refused to pay him an arrear of two thousand pounds due from his embassy. Disgusted with Arlington's behaviour, which was so unlike the friendship he had formerly professed, Sir William now retired to his house at Sheen, near Richmond, in Surry, and in this retreat, when, free from the hurry of business, he wrote his *Observations on the United Provinces*, and one part of his *Miscellanies*, in the time of the second Dutch war. About the end of summer, however, 1673, the king wishing to put an end to the war, sent for Sir William, and desired him to go to Holland, to negotiate a peace; but powers having been sent from thence at this time to the Marquis de Fresno, the Spanish ambassador at London, Sir William was ordered to confer with him, and a treaty was accordingly concluded in three days, and the point carried respecting the superiority of the British flag, which had been so long contested. In June, 1674, he was again sent ambassador to Holland, to offer the king's mediation between France and the confederates, then at war, which was accepted not

long after; Lord Berkley, Sir William Temple, and Sir Leoline Jenkins, being declared ambassadors and mediators, and Nimeguen, which Sir William had proposed, was at length agreed upon, by all parties, to be the place of treaty. During his stay at the Hague, the Prince of Orange, who was fond of the English language, and of the plain English way of eating, constantly dined and supped, once or twice a week, at his house; and, by this familiarity, he so much gained the prince's confidence and esteem, that he had a considerable hand in his marriage with the Princess Mary, daughter of James II.

In July, 1676, he removed his family to Nimeguen, where he spent the remainder of that year, without making any progress in the treaty; and, the year following, his son was sent over with letters from the Lord Treasurer, ordering him to return, and succeed Mr. Coventry, as Secretary of State. In consequence of this order Sir William came over to England in the spring of 1677; and though the affair of the secretary's place was dropped at his desire, he did not return to Nimeguen that year. About this time, the prince having the king's leave to come over, he soon after married the Princess Mary, and this gave occasion for a new coolness between Lord Arlington and Sir William, as he and the Lord Treasurer Osborn, who was related to Sir William's lady, were only privy to that affair. After the Prince and Princess were gone to Holland, as the Court always seemed inclined to favor France, the king wished to engage Sir William in some negotiations with that crown; but he was so ill satisfied with this proposal, that he offered to give up all pretensions to the office of secretary, and desiring the Lord Treasurer to acquaint his Majesty with his intentions, retired to Sheen, in hopes of being taken at his word. Upon a discovery, however, of the French designs not to evacuate the Spanish towns, agreed by the treaty to be delivered up, the king commanded him to



to go upon a third embassy to the States, with whom he concluded a treaty, by which England engaged, in case France refused to evacuate the towns in forty days, to declare war immediately against that nation; but, before half that time was elapsed, one du Crois was sent from the English court to Holland, upon a business which damped all the good humor excited by the treaty there, and which produced such sudden and astonishing changes in this country, as gave Sir William a distaste for all public employments.

In 1679 he went back to Nimeguen, where the French delayed to sign the treaty till the last hour; but having concluded it he returned to the Hague, whence he was soon after sent for, to enter upon the secretary's office, which Mr. Coventry at length resolved to resign. He accordingly came over, and went to court, as all his friends hoped, with a full intention of assuming his office, but he started some difficulty, because he had not a seat in the House of Commons, thinking that, by his not being a member, the public business would suffer at such a critical time, when the contests between the two parties ran so high, that the King thought fit to send the Duke of York into Flanders, and the Parliament to put the Lord Treasurer Danby into the Tower. After this his Majesty still pressed Sir William to be secretary of state, using as an argument for his compliance, that he had nobody to consult with, at a time when he had the greatest need of the best advice. Notwithstanding all this, Sir William declined the King's offer, advising him to choose a council, in whom he could confide, and upon whose abilities he could depend. This advice the King followed, and the choice of the persons being concerted between his Majesty and Sir William, the old council was dissolved four days after, and the new one established, of which the latter was a member.

In 1680 the councils began again to be changed, on the King's illness, at the end of summer, and the Duke of

York's return privately to court. In this juncture Sir William, endeavoring to bring into the King's favor and business some persons to whom his Majesty had taken a dislike, if not an aversion, he met with such treatment from them as gave him a fresh distaste to the court, at which he seldom made his appearance; so that he resided principally at Sheen. Soon after this the King sent for him again, and having proposed that he should go as ambassador into Spain, Sir William consented; but when his equipage was almost ready, and part of the money paid down for it, the King changed his mind, and told him that he would have him defer his journey till the end of the session of parliament, in which he was chosen a member for the university of Cambridge. In this session the spirit of party ran so high, that it was impossible to bring the house to any kind of temper; the Duke was sent into Scotland, but this would not satisfy them, nor any thing but a bill of exclusion, which Sir William strenuously opposed; saying, *that his endeavor ever should be to unite the Royal family, and that he would never enter into any councils to divide them.* Not long after this period, the parliament being dissolved by his Majesty, without the advice of his privy council, and contrary to what he had promised, Sir William made a bold speech against it, for which he was very ill used, by some of those friends who had been most earnest in promoting the last change in the ministry. Upon this he grew quite tired of public business, declined the offer he had of again serving for the university in the next parliament, that was soon after called, and met at Oxford; and seeing his Majesty resolved to govern without his parliament, and to supply his treasury through another channel, he retired to Sheen a few days after, whence he sent word by his son, *that he would pass the rest of his days like a good subject, but would never more meddle with public affairs.* From that time Sir William lived at this place till the end of that reign, and for some

some time in the next; when having purchased a small seat, called *Moor Park*, near Farnham, in Surry, which he conceived a great fondness for, on account of its solitude and retirement, and its healthy and pleasant situation; and being much afflicted with the gout, and broken with age and infirmities, he resolved to spend the remainder of his life in this agreeable retreat. In his way thither, therefore, he waited on King James, who was then at Windsor, and begged his favor and protection, to one *that would always live as a good subject, but, whatever might happen, never again enter upon any public employment*, desiring his Majesty to give no credit to any thing he might hear to the contrary. The King, who used to say that Sir William Temple's character was always to be believed, promised him whatever he desired, gently reproached him for not entering into his service, which, he said, was his own fault; and kept his word as faithfully to Sir William, as Sir William did to his Majesty, during the surprising turn of affairs that soon after followed, by the arrival of the Prince of Orange. At the time of this happy revolution, in 1688, Moor-Park becoming unsafe, as it lay in the way of both armies, he went back to the house at Sheen, which he had given up to his son, to whom he refused leave, though importunately begged, to go and meet the Prince of Orange at his landing; but after King James's abdication, when the Prince reached Windsor, he went thither to wait upon his Highness, and carried his son along with him. The Prince pressed him to enter into his service, and to be Secretary of State, but his age and infirmities confirming him in the resolution he had made, not to meddle any more with public affairs, he was satisfied that his son alone should enjoy his Majesty's favor. Mr. John Temple was upon this appointed Secretary at War, but he had hardly been a week in that

office, when he resolved to put an end to his own existence, which he did, on the 14th of April, 1689, by throwing himself out of a boat, hired for that purpose, in shooting London-bridge, having first put stones into his pocket, to make him sink speedily. Mr. Temple being a very promising young man, of great natural abilities, the public were extremely concerned at this private misfortune. With respect to Sir William, though as a father he was sensibly affected by the unexpected and sudden loss of so worthy a son, yet he bore his affliction with a Christian resignation, or rather with the firmness of a stoic, being of opinion *that a wise man may dispose of himself, and make his life as short as he pleased*.

About the end of this year he retired to Moor-Park, where he applied himself wholly to study, and to the occupations and amusements of a country life, seeing very little company; yet he had the honor of being often consulted by King William, in some of his secret and important affairs, as well of as a visit from him on his return from Winchester; and he likewise used to wait upon his Majesty at Richmond and Windsor, where he was always graciously received, with that familiarity and peculiar confidence which had begun and subsisted in Holland so many years before.

In 1694, he had the misfortune to lose his lady, who was a very extraordinary woman, as well as an affectionate wife. He was then considerably turned of sixty, at which age he practised what he had so often declared to be his opinion, *that an old man ought then to consider himself of no farther use in the world, except to himself and his friends*. After this he lived four years, very much afflicted with the gout, and his strength and spirits being worn out by the infirmities of age, he expired in the seventieth year of his age, in the month of January, 1698. He died at Moor-Park, where his heart was buried.

buried in a silver box, under the sundial in his garden, opposite to a window from which he used to contemplate and admire the works of nature, with his sister, the ingenious Lady Giffard. This was according to his will; in pursuance of which his body was privately interred in Westminster Abbey, and a marble monument erected in 1722, after the death of Lady Gifford, who resembled him in genius as well as in person, and left behind her the character of one of the best and most constant friends in the world.

The character of this great man seems to be very much misrepresented by Bishop Burnet, who says, that he was vain and conceited, and though of good principles, in politics an atheist, who left religion to the rabble, as fit only for them, and that he corrupted all who came near him, giving himself wholly up to study, ease, and pleasure. Mr. Boyer, however, calls him "an accomplished gentleman, a sound politician, a patriot, and a great scholar;" adding, "if this great idea should perchance be shaded by some touches of vanity and spleen, it must be considered, that the greatest, wisest, and best men, have still some failings and imperfections, which are inseparable from human nature." His character, as drawn by a particular friend, is very advantageous to his memory, and in substance is as follows:—Sir William Temple's person is best known by the pictures and prints that are preserved of him. He was rather tall than low; his shape, when young, was well-proportioned; his hair, which was of a dark brown color, curled naturally, and whilst that was esteemed a beauty, no one possessed it in greater perfection. His eyes were grey, but lively, and his body, though thin, was remarkably active, so that few could excel him in any kind of exercise. In his humor he had extraordinary spirit and life, with so

agreeable turns of wit and fancy in his conversation, that he was always welcome in every company; and some have observed, that he never wished to make a friend without accomplishing his end. He was a strict observer of truth, being of opinion that none who failed once ought ever to be trusted again; a man of the most delicate honor, of much humanity, and great good-nature, always taking pleasure in making others easy and happy. His passions were naturally warm and quick, but tempered by reason and reflection; and his disposition was gay, yet very unequal, from cruel fits of spleen and melancholy, as he was subject to great damps from sudden changes of the weather, but chiefly from crosses and surprising turns in business, and the disappointments he so often met with in his endeavors to promote the honor and service of his country. He never seemed busy in his most important employments; was a great lover of liberty, and therefore hated the servitude of courts. He said, he could never serve for wages, or be busy to no purpose, as many often are there; and he was always unwilling to enter upon any employment but that of a public minister. Having been a passionate-lover, he was a kind husband, a fond and indulgent father, a good master, and the best friend in the world; and knowing himself to be so, was impatient of the least suspicion or jealousy from those he loved. He ever respected the memory of those whom he had once esteemed, and wounded to the heart by grief upon the many losses of his children and friends, till recovered by reason and philosophy, and that perfect resignation to the Deity which he thought so necessary a part of our duty; and upon these sad occasions he would often say, *His Holy name be praised, His will be done.* He was not without strong aversions, so as to be uneasy at the first sight of some whom he disliked, and

and impatient of their conversation, apt to be warm in disputes, and expostulations; on this account he hated the one, and avoided the other, which he used to say might sometimes do well between lovers, but never between friends. His conversation he turned to what was most easy and pleasant, especially at table, where he said ill humor ought never to come; and his agreeable talk at it, had it been written down, would have been as entertaining to the reader, as it was to those who heard it. He had a very familiar way of conversing with all sorts of people, from the greatest princes to the meanest servants, and even children, whose imperfect language, and natural and innocent prattling, he was fond of. He lived healthy till forty-two, but he then began to be troubled with rheums upon his teeth and eyes, which he attributed to the air of Holland, and which ended when he was forty-seven in the gout; upon which he grew very melancholy, being then ambassador at the Hague. He said a man was never good for any thing after it, and though he continued in business nearly three years longer, yet it was always with a design of extricating himself from it as fast as he could, and of making good his own rules, *that nobody should make love after forty, nor be in business after fifty.* After this period, he had frequent returns of ill health, but he never liked to consult physicians, saying, that he hoped to die without them; and he trusted wholly to the care and advice of his friends, which he often expressed himself so happy in, as to want nothing but health; and as riches could not help him to it, he despised them. He was born to a

moderate estate, and did not much encrease it during his employments. King Charles II. gave him the reversion of the Matter of the Rolls place, after his father, who kept it during his life, and the presents he made him in several embassies, were chiefly laid out in building and planting; and in purchasing old statues and pictures that still remain in his family. Those who knew him little thought him rich, but he used to tell them pleasantly, that he wanted nothing to be rich but an estate, and yet nobody was more generous to friends, or more charitable to the poor, giving sometimes to real objects an hundred pounds at a time, and sometimes three hundred. His religion was that of the Church of England, in which he was born and bred; and however loose Bishop Burnet may represent his principles to have been, yet no ground is given in his writings for such uncharitable reflections. His excellent letter to the Countess of Essex is a convincing proof both of his piety and eloquence, and to that picture drawn by himself in his works, those must be referred who wish either to know or to imitate him.

Sir William Temple's principal works are, I. Memoirs from 1672 to 1692. They are very useful for those who wish to be acquainted with the affairs of that period. II. Remarks upon the State of the United Provinces. III. An Introduction to the History of England. This is a Sketch of a General History. IV. Letters written during his last embassies. And V. Miscellanies, which contain a great many curious pieces, that display considerable depth of thought.

#### METHOD OF GIVING A LUSTRE TO SILVER PLATE.

**D**ISSOLVE a quantity of alum in water, so as to make a pretty strong brine, which you must scum very carefully; add some soap to it,

and when you wish to use it, dip a piece of linen rag in it, and daub it over your pieces of plate.—This process will add much to their lustre.

## STATE OF THE MILITARY FORCES OF THE TURKS.

BY MR. CHENIER.

THE first foldiers of Othman, the founder of the Turkish empire, were only volunteers, whom a spirit of turbulence and a taste for arms had collected together; incited by the glory of conquering, by avarice and superstition, they were contented with plunder, and with the hopes of paradise. When Orcan, his son, had extended his conquests far enough to form grander projects, he was sensible that it would be necessary to have an army obedient to their chief, and to complete that military discipline, which his father had already introduced. He, therefore, established for the infantry a daily pay, which increased in proportion to the length of time they served; and gave lands to the old foldiers, who, in return, were obliged to furnish a certain number of armed horsemen. Such was the origin of regular troops in the Ottoman empire, and this plan has been followed and improved, according as the Sultans found their power increase.

The most celebrated troops of the Turkish empire are the Janissaries, who pique themselves much on their bravery and fidelity: they never suffer any foreign castes to be incorporated with them; and even Arabs, Egyptians, and Moors, although Mahometans, cannot be admitted among this body.

The number of the Janissaries who receive pay is not exactly known. At the beginning of this century there were an hundred and eighty-six companies; but as some of them are very numerous, and others much less so, I doubt much whether this militia exceeds sixty thousand men, who are dispersed throughout the capital, and all the strong places of the empire. The Janissaries are allowed to exercise mechanical professions. Those who are not married, who labor, and who, for this reason, are not lodged in bar-

racks, do not receive victuals. Next to the Janissaries are the cannoniers, bombardiers, miners, and others, who each have their chief, and perform their service separately.

From the Grand Signior to the humblest individual, all the Turks are honored with being Janissaries. There are none who do not consider it as an honor to serve, or to contribute towards the defence of their religion, but the Janissaries only perform service, and receive pay: the rest are honorary foldiers. Each company has its particular money-box, under the direction of a commissary, and a few officers. The wealth of the deceased Janissaries is deposited in it, and whatever is taken from this treasury, must be employed only for keeping up tents, and other military articles; for relieving infirm or necessitous soldiers, or for the ransom of Janissaries who are slaves.

The troops of the seraglio, and the sovereign's guards, the Bostangis, the Capigis, and the Baltagis, form a part of the Ottoman militia; but these go to war only occasionally: attached to the service of the palace, and the person of the prince, they never march but along with him.

In the provinces there are troops of infantry, who replace the Janissaries when occasion may require; but these never receive pay except when they are employed, and it is furnished by the province to which they belong. Independent of these bodies of soldiers, who are augmented according to emergencies, in case of war, the provinces are obliged at their own expences to raise recruits, who are paid a certain sum for the campaign. Besides this, the Ottoman army is reinforced, and often over-burdened with a multitude of volunteers, attracted by a desire for pillage, and a love to their religion; but these reinforcements, instead of being of any assist-



ance, serve only to waste provisions, and to spread confusion, because such crowds of undisciplined soldiers, acknowledging no chief, can never act in concert together.

The principal strength of the Ottoman army consists in cavalry, on account of the abundance and goodness of their horses, their skill in managing them, and the dexterity with which they use swords and scimitars. The Turkish cavalry, however, is not so numerous as their infantry, but it is nearly so. A part of this cavalry, not exceeding fifteen or sixteen thousand men, is destined for the sultan's guard, and is paid by the state; the rest, which comes from the provinces, is paid also by the state, when in actual service; but, at all other times, it is maintained by officers called *Zaim* and *Timariot*, who enjoy these military benefices, in order to furnish, in case of necessity, a number of armed cavaliers, proportioned to the fiefs which they possess, and the produce of their lands, which is a pay anticipated. These establishments have been transmitted from the Romans, who distributed to the military upon the frontiers of their empire a part of their conquests. The Franks, when they entered Gaul, shewed the same liberality to their soldiers; but these fiefs passed insensibly to individuals, called Knights Bannerets, and even to Ecclesiastics; and the enjoyment of these benefices subjected them to military service. These institutions, which have varied in Europe, have been perpetuated in Turkey, where, notwithstanding the abuses of which they are susceptible, they are observed with the utmost fidelity.

This feudal militia is generally united under the banner of its *Sangiack*, or commander. This formerly was one of the most distinguished employments, when there were neither Beys nor Pachas; but, since the regulations made by Soliman, what is called the *Sangiack* is only an office of the lowest rank; it has only to distinguish it the *sangiak*, or flag, from which it derives its name. Above this officer there is the *Sangiak-Bey* and the *Pacha*, among

whom the *Beigler-Beys* are the most honorable, and they have a number of *Sangiak* under their jurisdiction. The conformity of these titles, since the Roman empire to this period, leave us in no doubt respecting their origin. The Romans called them *Vexillarii Milites*, the French *Bannerets*; and the Ottomans name them *Sangiak*, all of which indicate the flag, or banner, under which the soldiers were assembled.

According to an estimate made by Count Maréglé, this cavalry amounts to more than fifty thousand men, independent of an equal number, or nearly so, kept on the frontier places, or attending the Pachas, and other lords who are in the military service.

These different bodies of the Turkish cavalry make more than an hundred and twenty thousand men; and as the Tartars, united to the Ottomans by the same interest and the same belief, may easily assemble as many, in cases of absolute necessity, the Grand Signior can raise more than two hundred thousand armed horsemen. Confining ourselves to the same number of infantry, it appears that the Ottoman empire can set on foot from four to five hundred thousand soldiers, without reckoning volunteers, whilst it scarcely pays sixty thousand embodied in the time of peace. Such is the advantage which the Ottoman empire has over its neighbours in military force, since the latter, obliged at all times to support powerful armies, are under the necessity of making the greatest efforts, though they may have neither the same means in respect of riches, nor the same resources in respect of population.

The Ottomans have preserved the manner of fighting practised by the ancients; and, as they are not very fond of innovations, it is doubtful whether they will ever adopt any other. Their army, when the ground upon which it is drawn up will admit, forms a crescent, which they extend to a sufficient length to enclose the enemy, and this cannot fail of giving them the advantage in point of number; but as, in the environs of the Danube,

Danube, which are the usual theatre of their wars, the Ottomans cannot easily adopt this method, on account of the inequality of the ground, it often happens that their detachments, which make attacks without order, and without concert, impede one another, and render their efforts of no avail, if they do not destroy each other. It is the interest of the Ottomans to avoid general actions, and to confine themselves to skirmishing, and to the defending of posts, in which they can signalize their bravery, and attack with advantage, without being under any constraint in their evolutions. In such actions they have been often seen to return several times upon the enemy, with their sabres in their hands, and at length to obtain a complete victory; whilst, in general actions, their natural impetuosity, a want of foresight, and the irregularity with which they make their attacks, serve only to spread confusion: and a large army, once shaken and routed, cannot be again easily rallied.

Notwithstanding those fits of confidence or fear, which superstition inspires into the Ottomans, they cannot be accused with a want of courage: theirs, excited by fanaticism, rises often to ferocity. An Ottoman soldier is never afraid of another; but, in a pitched battle, if an European army can once withstand the impetuous fire of the Ottomans, they may consider themselves as sure of obtaining a victory; because the latter, not being capable of following the regular and methodical motions of European tactics, are always afraid of the effects produced by their harmony. The Europeans have the inestimable advantage of encampments, of their artillery being readily and exactly served, of the activity of their musquetry, of the use of the bayonet, and of the knowledge of evolutions, while the Ottomans have nothing to oppose to this military theory, but blind courage and ferociousness, which, subjected to chance, are almost always unsuccessful. They never make use of the bayonet; they are slow in

handling their muskets, which, through impatience, they abandon for their naked sabres, and both officers and soldiers, who scarcely differ in any thing but their rank, follow the same plan, so that, in such impetuous motions, the fate of the battle is soon decided.

The Ottoman soldiers, as well as those of the Romans, are honored by their office, and the first step of an officer is to be a common Janissary: because, in Turkey, it is only by obeying that one can learn to command. The Ottoman troops are submissive to the orders of their chiefs; but, notwithstanding their respect for this essential part of discipline, their ardent disposition, and the influence which war always has over events, render them haughty and ready to mutiny, and to entertain a spirit of revolt; but it is to the want of prudence in their chiefs, or to the circumstances of the moment, that we must attribute those insurrections, which have often decided the success of campaigns, determined the fate of generals, and disturbed the repose of the empire.

The Ottoman soldiers are in general fine troops; we may even say that they are good troops, as they serve with good will, and not through constraint; for it is not upon discipline only that the real strength of an army depends. The Ottoman soldiers never enervate themselves by repose; and if they are ever so little trained, and well commanded, they are fit to undertake any thing. Among the Ottomans uniformity of stature is not much regarded, and every man is a soldier, provided he is in a condition to serve. Besides, the Ottomans are, in general, very fine men. There is no uniform color either for their dress. The Janissaries, however, wear a green dress, and large blue breeches, without adhering too rigorously to the same shade of color. The troops are paid every three months, and they themselves are obliged to furnish their own clothes.

The Ottomans exercise their soldiers with great guns, bombs, and the musket, and they are subjected to no other military exercise whatever. Formerly they were exercised in shooting with the bow and cross-bow, but these are no longer used since the musket has supplied their place.

It is not possible to reconcile the precision of the European tactics, with the prejudices of a nation, as averse to the customs of others, as it is tenacious of its own. The Ottoman forces would be invincible, did they to the delirium of fanaticism and superiority of numbers, unite a practice in the art of war, and the science of evolutions. Conducted by the law of destiny, and being little susceptible of deliberate courage, the Ottomans follow only a rapid impulsion, which inspires ferocity or fear. However dangerous it may be to destroy the prejudices of a nation, there are still other obstacles, perhaps equally insurmountable. Having very little desire for making conquests, the Ottomans keep on foot no more forces than are necessary for preserving what they have already acquired, and in time of peace they scarcely pay the sixth part of what they can arm in time of war. Should they form their militia according to the military evolutions brought to perfection in Europe, it would be necessary also that they should have numerous legions constantly exercised, and always ready to combat, which would encrease, in the proportion of six to one, the expences destined for the maintenance of soldiers, and give to the army, already possessed of too much influence, an ascendancy that might entirely destroy public tranquillity. It is to be presumed besides, and we are to expect the same thing from time and from reason, that the fury of arms, and that perfection of evolutions will, perhaps, relax in Europe; and that sovereigns will renounce those formidable armies, which impoverish their people by the expences they occasion, and

by depriving agriculture of a number of hands, so much the more necessary, as the earth requires more care, since the wants of men have been multiplied. They will then reduce to simplicity those evolutions, the whole merit of which consists in precision, and which are, perhaps, incompatible with the hazard and confusion of engagements. Might they not be contented with keeping on foot only an army sufficient to protect their frontiers, and a body of provincial militia exercised from time to time, and always ready to assemble for the defence of the state? This militia might easily perform simple evolutions; and those striking manœuvres, which have contributed to the aggrandisement and the glory of the House of Brandenburg, and which the late King of Prussia alone had a passion for bringing to perfection, becoming insensibly effaced from the remembrance of nations, they will all find themselves upon a level in this respect. It must every where be allowed that soldiers cannot be familiarised with these manœuvres, but by tormenting them, and keeping them in continual activity, which requires in the officers a constancy and love of labor, too incompatible with an European education, to be depended on. Ye sovereigns, who ought to be the fathers of your people, and the friends of humanity, since your thrones are in the hearts of your subjects, make your glory only to consist in rendering them happy; renounce that military pomp which breathes nothing but destruction; consider that large standing armies preserve a reciprocal distrust between you, prevent the people from applying to more useful labors, and tend only to exhaust your treasures, which are the fruits of their industry. Think that if those large armies cause sometimes great devastation in the enemies country, it is never until after they have ruined their own. Let the inestimable advantages of the European tactics, on the banks of the Danube, in 1788, be estimated. Was not the

Emperor's

Emperor's army obliged to confine itself to a defensive war? Have not the Ottomans, without generals, and without military knowledge, attacked sometimes with success; and have they not always with as much intelligence as intrepidity, resisted the efforts of their enemies, without exposing themselves to the hazard of a decisive battle.

In the present state of things, the Mahometans, devoted to the defence of their religion, are born soldiers; and it would be necessary to make them so, were they subjected to the restraint of rules, and to measured evolutions, liable to amendments and variations. There would be more inconveniences than advantages in changing the education of a nation entirely occupied with itself, and tenacious of its customs, since it would be necessary to destroy prejudices, and to make it adopt new ideas; but these changes in the opinions of a people have too much influence on their moral, military, and political systems, to hazard the experiment. They are so many shocks which shake empires, and tend often to ruin them. We have an instance under the reign of Mahmoud V. of the effect produced by this innovation, when the chief of the bombardiers, Achmet Pacha, known under the name of Count Bonneval,\* proposed to initiate the Janissaries into the military evolutions of Europe. These exercises, little calculated for haughty people, who have an aversion to the usages of others, soon lost their novelty, and it was found ne-

cessary to abandon them, to put an end to the murmurs which they had excited.

After the example of the Roman soldiers, the young Turks incorporated among the Janissaries, exercise with one another in running, wrestling, and leaping, and challenge each other who shall carry the largest stone on the back of his hand, and who in running shall throw it to the greatest distance. They exercise themselves also in throwing the *d'jeri*† at one another, and in warding off the blow. This is the exercise likewise of the young noblemen destined for the profession of arms. They dart it on horseback with much address, and when it rebounds, they take it up again, riding on a full gallop. These exercises, which the Ottomans make their amusement, render them dexterous, agile, vigorous, and hardy, and at the same time make them good horsemen.

The Turkish government supplies its soldiers with arms and ammunition, but as the Ottomans in general are fond of military service, and embrace it from choice, it is common for each soldier to carry his sabre, his fusée, and one or two pistols at his girdle along with him; and to prevent any inconvenience which might arise from an inequality in the calibres, small bars of lead are distributed to each soldier, which they cut to whatever size they please. The Turks being accustomed to the use of tents, like those wandering people from whom they derive their origin, they make them very com-

\* Count de Bonneval, of an ancient family in Limousin, served in the French marine and infantry, but having been obliged to leave the Court towards the end of the reign of Louis XIV. on account of his satirical disposition, he went into the Emperor's service, where he arrived to the rank of General of Artillery. Having quarrelled with Prince Eugene, he went to Venice, where the Republic, afraid of embroiling itself, rejected an offer which he made of his services. He then went to Bosnia, where Aly Pacha Ekin-Oglou, a distinguished General, shewed him how difficult it would be for him to avoid the animadversion of Prince Eugene, and advised him to exchange his hat for a turban, as being more commodious. This officer, raised at Constantinople to the rank of General of Artillery, lived there in honorable mediocrity, till the sad of March, 1747.

† A Stick of about two feet in length, which they throw like a javelin.

modious, and susceptible of great magnificence. Nothing can be more beautiful than the tents of the Sultan and the Vizirs; the apartments are distributed with as much convenience as those of a palace; they are embroidered in the inside with flowers and foliage of different colors, and several tents are united together, and surrounded by an enclosure, which prevents the interior

part from being seen. Those appropriated for the soldiers are equally light and commodious, and they are embellished with various ornaments. On the dome is seen the number of the company, and the sign or hieroglyphic by which the soldier knows his own. The Vizir's tent is distinguished by the tails of five horses, which this minister has a right to hoist when he commands the army.

#### REFLECTIONS ON DREAMING, AS IT RELATES TO HEALTH.

**P**HILOSOPHY and medicine, as we are told, have at first had a common origin, and it is much to be wished that these two sisters had continued to be more intimately connected, and to assist each other reciprocally with their lights.

It is very astonishing that the ancient philosophers should have professed a belief in presages drawn from dreams, and Cicero, who shews the folly of them with so much sound reasoning, would not, perhaps, have thought them worthy of a serious refutation, had he read what Hippocrates says on this subject. The latter, it is true, first makes a distinction favorable to the received opinions of the ancient Greeks, respecting the faith that ought to be given to dreams; he even allows, that to avert the misfortunes with which they threaten us, it is useful and proper to address the gods by prayer; but he afterwards mentions the result of certain observations, which shew, in a striking manner, the influence that the state of the body, and the manner of one's living, have upon the nature of our dreams.

Natural actions, and the phenomena of the heavens and the earth observed during sleep in the accustomed order, indicate, according to Hippocrates, that a person enjoys perfect health, and that there is neither an excess, nor a deficiency in the humors: one ought then to persevere in the same regimen. If, on the contrary, these objects appear in dreams,

combined in a confused or whimsical manner, so as to occasion pain, he advises those, who are disturbed by them, to retrench a third of their food, and afterwards to return gradually to the usual quantity. Besides this, he recommends walking, and other bodily exercises, and even those of the voice, such as singing and declamation. This advice ought still more to be followed by those who are of a phlegmatic constitution. Bathing, and diluting food, with moderate exercise, are highly proper for those who are of a slender make, and subject to nervous affections. We do not here speak of those frightful and terrible dreams, which indicate, according to the father of medicine, some very great disorder that threatens sickness.

A remark very consoling for the generality of mankind engaged in a busy and active life is, that the more the body is accustomed to endure fatigue, and the inclemency of the weather, the sounder one's sleep is, and the freer from frightful dreams. The experience of all ages confirms the truth of this observation, which may be rendered more striking by an instance taken from Sparman's account of his voyage to the Cape of Good Hope. The Doctor and his companions, in travelling through the deserts of Africa, exposed to the fatigues of hunting, and to every kind of hardship, enjoyed on the bare ground, and in the open air, sound and refreshing sleep, and they acquired the habit



habit of waking in good spirits on the first appearance of day. Having spent three months in this manner in perfect health and vigor, they were received with much cordiality at the house of a wealthy planter. Rich food and delicate beds the two

first nights afforded them here much comfort; but afterwards their sleep became confused and disturbed by frightful dreams, and in the morning they experienced a kind of languor, which they could scarcely get the better of.

#### MANNER OF PREPARING SAGO.

THE Sago tree, or *Palma Saguerifera*, which grows naturally in the forests of the peninsula of Malacca, requires no culture. It rises sometimes to the height of about twenty-five or thirty feet, and its trunk becomes so large, that a man can scarcely embrace it. It propagates of itself by seed and shoots; nevertheless the Malays form considerable plantations of it, and it is one of their principal resources for food. It may be said, that this tree is one of the richest presents of nature.

The woody bark of the Sago tree is about an inch in thickness, and covers a multitude of long fibres; which being interwoven one with another, envelop a mass of a gummy farinaceous substance. When the tree is ripe, and ready to produce it, the extremities of its palms are covered with a white dust, which transpires through the pores of the leaves. The Malays then cut down the tree, and divide it into several blocks, which they split into quarters lengthwise,

and extract the farinaceous substance which it contains, and which adheres to the fibres that surround it. They then dilute the whole in common water, and strain it through a piece of fine cloth to separate all the fibres from it; and when the paste has lost part of its moisture by evaporation, they put it into earthen moulds of different forms, in which it dries, and becomes hard. This paste forms a wholesome nourishment, and will keep for several years.

When they eat Sago, the Indians are contented with diluting it in water, but sometimes they boil it. They have the art of separating the flour of this substance, and of reducing it into small grains, almost of the same shape and size as those of rice. Sago prepared in this manner is preferable to the other for valetudinaries, and old people; it is an excellent remedy for disorders of the breast. When boiled in pure water, it becomes reduced to a kind of white jelly, which is very agreeable to the taste.

#### MISCELLANEOUS ANECDOTES.

THE celebrated Montesquieu, being one day at the house of a Jew, who was a rich banker, found him busily employed in sharpening a knife destined for performing some act of Jewish discipline. Montesquieu having asked him why he sharpened his knife with so much care, he replied, because Moses had commanded that it should have no teeth. Montesquieu then bid him continue his operation, and when the scrupulous Jew was satisfied, the president took

out a magnifying glass, and shewed him abundance of large teeth, where the naked eye could discover nothing but a fine edge. "Ah, Sir," cried the frightened Israelite, "it is a real saw; I am quite unhappy; I must begin my labor again. Be easy," replied Montesquieu, "and consider your knife as properly sharpened; he who made your laws did not use spectacles."

Mr. de Malezieux, speaking one day to the duke of Orleans, regent of France,

France, respecting a treaty of peace that had been just concluded, observed, that it would have been prudent to insert some obscure clause in it, the interpretation of which might, at a convenient opportunity, furnish a pretence for renewing the war.

"That," replied the prince, "is not necessary; when people have money enough to go to war, they need not care a farthing for a pretence."

The Deys of Algiers are never ashamed to mention the meanness of their extraction, as they think that the distinction conferred on them by the power which they exercise, is a sufficient title to nobility. Dr. Shaw relates, that the Dey of Algiers who was upon the throne when he travelled in that country, replied to the deputy consul of a neighbouring nation, who had offended him, "My mother sold sheep's trotters, and my father neats tongues, but they would have been ashamed to expose for sale such a bad tongue as mine."

A Spaniard, who was established in a small town of Holland, and who must have died of hunger had he not had a servant who spoke Dutch and Spanish, said, one day, to a Spanish traveller, who came to see him, "How stupid the people are in this country!—I have resided here twenty-five years, and yet nobody understands what I say."

The clergymen, who performed service in the Lutheran church, at Potsdam, which Fouga, a celebrated architect, ornamented with an elegant facade of cut stone, represented to the late King of Prussia, that it obscured the interior part of the church so much that the people could not see to read the psalms. The building, however, being so far advanced that this inconvenience could not be remedied, his Majesty wrote the following answer at the bottom of the memorial, "Blessed are those who believe and who do not see."

Under the ministry of Cardinal Fleury, some rewards were granted to

all the officers of a certain regiment, except to the Chevalier de Ferigouse, one of the lieutenants. This gentleman, who was a Gascon, happening one day to be present at the minister's audience, thought proper to address him in the following words:

"I do not know, my Lord, by what fatality it happened that I was under cover when your eminence was showering down your favors on the whole regiment." The cardinal was so well pleased with this singular expression, that the chevalier soon after obtained what he wished for.

A gentleman, of a very extraordinary disposition, having heard the fable of the harpies read in the Court of Alphonso V. King of Aragon, imagined that it was done with a view to ridicule him, because the poets pretend that these monsters inhabited a certain isle near Sicily, from which his family was originally sprung. The monarch, observing that he seemed to be much offended, said to him, "Be not uneasy, Sir; the harpies no longer reside in that place; they are now dispersed throughout the courts of princes; and it is there that these ravenous birds have for some time fixed their abode."

John Raulin, of the order of Cluny, in his *Sermones quadragesimales*, speaking of fasting, says, "A coach goes faster when it is empty—by fasting a man can be better united to God; for it is a principle with geometers, that a round body can never touch a plane surface except in one point; but God is this surface, according to these words, *Justus et rectus Dominus*. A belly too well fed becomes round; it cannot therefore touch God except in one point; but fasting flattens the belly, and it is then that it is united with the surface of God in all points."

A courtier who was wearied with waiting in the anti-chamber of a great man, repeated the two following lines, which terminate a Latin epigram:

*Si nequeo placidas affari Cæsaris aures  
Saltem aliquis veniat qui mihi dicat: abi.*

## OBSERVATIONS ON THE AMBER OF SICILY.

BY THE ABBE SESTINI.

PLINY informs us, in his Natural History, lib. xxxvii. cap. 3. that amber was called *succinum* by the Latins, and that they falsely imagined it to be the gum of a tree.\* The Arabs, according to Avicenna, called it *Karabè*, a word which signifies a substance that attracts bits of straw. Amber indeed, when well polished, and warmed to a certain degree by rubbing it against a piece of cloth, operates like a magnet, and attracts any light body that may be presented to it, especially chaff or bits of straw. We have a proof of this in the testimony of Isidorus, who expressly says, speaking of amber, *Folia, et paleas vestiumque simbras trahat et rapiat.*

The Germans called it *Glessum*, from which the island of Glessaria takes its name, as Pliny relates in the place above cited. *A Germanis appellari Glessum itaque et a nostris unam insularum ob id Glessarum appellatam.* We read the same thing in Tacitus, *succinum veteres Germani appellarunt Glessum,† quod nostræ gentis lingua vitrum significat, quædam enim è succinis fulvis, et Falernis vinis instar placent.*

Amber, according to Agricola, was by the Greeks called *elestrum*, because when rubbed and heated it attracted straws, and other light bodies. Theophrastus, who is much older, gives it likewise the name of *Ελεκτρον*, because he observed, three hundred years before the birth of Christ, that it attracted small bits of straw and paper.

Respecting the formation of amber there have been a variety of opinions. Some have imagined that it was the tears of the poplar, others have

thought it to be the viscous and resinous sap of the pine; some the sap of the maple and the cedar. In short others invented the fable in which it was supposed that amber was formed by the tears of the sisters of Meleager, who were afterwards changed into birds. Some naturalists make it to proceed from the sperm of whales, or of other fishes, and some have believed that it was produced by ripe and odoriferous flowers, in the month of May. All these different opinions, however, though supported by various observers of nature, may be classed with the fable of the sisters of Meleager.

The most probable opinion is, that amber is a kind of bitumen. Libavius considers it as such, as well as Bocconi, called the Sylvius Siculus, who describes, in his physical museum, several places in which amber is found, and which, he observes, are not far distant from some springs or fountains of Petroleum or Naphta. This author imagines that this substance is conveyed by subterranean conduits to the sea, where it condenses, and when it happens to be detached from the bottom of the ocean, it is transported by the waves to the shore, amidst sea weeds.

Gualtieri, Charleton, Giovanni Viggandi, and several other authors, assert the same thing, and tell us that amber is a liquid bitumen of the earth, condensed and hardened in the sea; but it appears to me that we ought to admit these latter opinions no more than the former.

It may be easily proved that the places where amber is found are not

\* Arboris succum esse prisce nostri credidere ob id succinum appellantes.

† The Germans still have in their language the word *glass*, which the Dutch, the English, the Flemish, and other nations have borrowed from them. It appears that *gless*, or *glass*, among the Germans served to express transparency; and therefore they gave this name to amber, which is really transparent like glass. We may conclude also from the same passage of Tacitus, that the famous *Falernian Wine* was of a golden yellow color like that of amber, and of the greater part of the wines produced in Germany and Italy.

far distant from springs of Petroleum;\* but I cannot admit that it flows afterwards through subterranean channels, that it is condensed by the means of marine salt, and that it is the spirit of this salt which has the property of coagulating liquid bitumen, and other oily substances. For this reason I shall analyse it, and afterwards give my opinion of it.

In the valley of Demona, one of the three provinces into which Sicily is divided, there is a small territory, and a village called *Petralia*, a mountainous place, where Naphta and Petroleum are found, as its name sufficiently indicates.

The manner of collecting this oil, which is commonly called oil of stone, *olio di sasso*, is as follows. In this place there is a small church, dedicated to the Virgin, called our Lady of Petralia, which is served by some hermits.

By the assistance of art, these hermits bring into one reservoir the waters of different springs, which pass over certain liquid bitumens found in that place, and the waters carrying along with them several of their fat and oily particles, deposit them in the reservoir, where they float on the surface, as being specifically lighter than water. Every morning the hermits collect the oil with sponges and cotton, and preserve it in small vases, in order to sell it to the apothecaries of the island, who consider it as a specific against worms.

In these parts there are a great many springs, which pass over liquid bitumens, and it appears probable that these bitumens, which are composed of denser and more viscous particles, flowing into different parts of

the earth, where they find other bituminous and sulphureous substances, are there condensed in the course of time, or become hardened by the effect of subterranean fire, and even by combining with the sulphureous and saline particles of the earth at the same time. Such is the manner in which this oil may thicken, and at length form a hard and solid substance. These principles being once established, it may be easily demonstrated that amber derives its real origin from liquid bitumens, and Naphta, or oil of stone.

In the first place, there is no appearance that this liquid bitumen flows under the earth to the sea, especially if we speak of that of Petralia; because in such a case it must run more than fifty miles under ground, that is to say, sixteen leagues, and two thirds, independent of large mountains and a great number of hills, which are to be found in that space, across which it would have to pass.

Secondly, It is to be remarked, that there are none of these springs or fountains in the neighbourhood of Catania. These facts, therefore, absolutely destroy the opinion of those who believe that this liquid substance, having once flowed to the sea, becomes there condensed.

Thirdly, Another proof which appears still farther to strengthen my conjecture, is, that the amber which the sea throws upon the coasts of the territories of Catania, is found also in the mountains of Petralia, and appears to have the same nature, and the same qualities.

After this singularity we may say, that amber being formed in the bosom of the earth, it is not surprizing that it should often be found united with

\* This liquid, which flows from certain veins of the earth in several parts of France and Lombardy, especially near Modena, is thus called because it drops from stones in those caverns where it is collected. The word *petroleum* signifies oil of stone. This liquor, or oil, is so inflammable that it takes fire the moment the least light is brought near it; it is used in physic, and in making fire-works. It appears that this oil is the same liquid as that of which Pliny speaks in his Natural History, book ii. chap. 105, and to which he gives the name of Naphta. He thus describes it, *Hinc magna cognatio bitumen, transfluitque proximus in eam undecumque visum.*

small pieces of stone, as I have frequently had occasion to observe in some bits of amber, in which heterogeneous particles were to be seen. It appears to me, therefore, from the different reasons I have assigned, that we ought to consider as very ill founded the opinion of those who pretend, that liquid bitumens flow to the sea, through subterranean channels, and that they are afterwards hardened by the effects of marine salt, which would rather tend to dissolve than to coagulate them.

Two sorts of amber are thrown by the waves on the coasts of Catania; one black, and another commonly yellow. The difference of these two colors must be attributed to the difference of the bitumenous juices, which, being at first liquid, are afterwards condensed in the bowels of the earth. As several different shades are observed in the color of the petroleum, there must also be the same variety in that of amber; and this variety proceeds from the different degrees of the consistence of this substance, or the different degrees of the heat which has formed it.

It follows, then, that such liquids issuing pure, and of a golden color, the amber which they form will be likewise clear, and of a beautiful yellow. The amber will, on the contrary, be black, if the bitumenous juices from which it proceeds have been exposed to a violent heat, as its aerial and oily particles will then have been consumed.

I have still another opinion, which is, that black amber may be formed from a kind of bitumen which is absolutely black, and of the nature of the *gagates*, or jet, found in some of the mountains of Sicily, especially at Ragosa, a city of the province of Noto, from which a great quantity of black and yellow fossil amber is dug up. Black amber, however, is here considered as of no value, and on that account it is never used.

The following reasons may be given to explain why amber is cast by the sea, on the shores of Catania.

This substance, being formed of liquid bitumens, naphtha, or oil of stone, and being hardened and fixed by subterranean fires, or the sulfureo-saline particles of the earth, and as these bitumens are found in the territories of the village of *Petralia*, a mountainous country, near the river Simeto, it thence follows, that in the time of tempests and storms, the waters flowing with great impetuosity from the tops of these mountains, and running from one torrent to another, and then into that river, carrying along with them earth, stones, and rocks, may also convey some pieces of fossil amber into the sea by the same stream.

As amber, by its nature, swims on the surface of the water, when the sea is agitated or tempestuous, it may throw this light substance upon the coasts, mixed with sea weed.

My second opinion is supported by that of Peter Gassendi, in his life of Peyresk, book second, for that author gives the epithet of *fossil* to the amber found often under the earth in Sicily, and which the torrents alone carry to the sea. *Succinum rem fossilem esse; quippe in Sicilia quoque effodi et torrentium vi detegi, d'ferriq; ad mare usque, ac repellente maris aquâ in litoribus sæpe inveniri.*

When there happen any heavy rains in the island, which is generally the case about the beginning of winter, several sea faring people, and the lower classes at Catania, and above all children, hasten to the borders of the sea, fully assured of finding some pieces of amber, which they search for in heaps of sea weed and other filth deposited by the waves on the shore. This business the Sicilians call *spiralare*, from the word *trala*, which, in their language, signifies a shore. Those who go in quest of amber are named *Corzaleri*.

This denomination is given them because some of the fishermen, who catch a kind of shell fish, named *Tel-lina*, in Italian, and *Corzola* in the Sicilian idiom, often find pieces of amber in their nets; and this name, given



given to those who employ themselves in collecting these shell fish, has been extended to those also who search for pieces of amber. This substance, coming thus from the hands of nature, resembles a stone of the color of rusty iron, but internally it is like a topaz; that is to say, yellow, inclining to green, which the Italians call *divino Falerno*.

One may often observe in amber different kinds of insects, such as ants, gnats, grasshoppers, spiders, and flies. This singularity may be explained by saying that these insects, being in the earth, might have been easily inclosed in its cracks and fissures by glutinous and oily liquors, which flow through subterranean veins. These insects, perhaps, have been attracted by their oily particles; every one knows what Martial says, in the twelfth epigram of his sixth book, on an ant enclosed in a piece of amber,

Dum Phaetonte eâ formica vagatur in umbrâ,

Implicuit tenuem succina gutta feram :  
Sic modo quæ fuerat, vitâ contempta manente

Funeribus facta est nunc pretiosa suis.

I was assured that a greater quantity was found upon these coasts formerly than at present. Notwithstanding the heavy rains, this substance becomes every day scarcer.

The cause of this may be attributed to the drying up of some of these springs of the oil of *Napha*, which has annihilated those liquid bitumens from which amber derives its origin. Bocconi pretends, that the earthquakes, to which Sicily is subject, have greatly contributed to occasion this loss, which continually encreases, because, by dividing and cleaving the rocks and the mountains, they may have swallowed up those springs, and the bitumenous liquids along with them.

The pieces of amber found on these coasts are generally small, and below the

weight of an ounce; the largest are not above three ounces. Those which weigh a pound are exceedingly scarce. As for me, I saw none in the rich collections of amber in the cabinet of Natural History belonging to the prince of Biscari, that weighed more than nine, ten, and twelve ounces.

The amber which is thus found, in its natural state, is all rough. If the pieces are small they cost some *crazies*, or halfpence, but if they weigh two, three, four, or more ounces, they are then valued at so many ounces of gold.\* Those, however, who wish to procure larger pieces of amber, do not keep to this kind of tariff, and pay sometimes the double. If any insects are inclosed in them they acquire then a value entirely imaginary.

It is needless to say here, that amber has been always esteemed. I shall, however, observe, that the peasants in the neighbourhood of Catania and those inhabitants which are found in great abundance on the ridge of Mount *Ætna*, according to ancient custom, ornament themselves with necklaces made of large amber beads. Fathers present these necklaces to their daughters, instead of jewels, when they are promised in marriage.

Catania is a city where industry turns to advantage this present of nature, because without sending the amber abroad unwrought, unless it be to adorn some cabinets, it is manufactured here in the utmost perfection. It is turned in the lathe, and different toys are made of it; such as snuff-boxes, watch cases, handles for swords, canes, sleeve buttons, buttons for vests, and other things of the same kind, especially beautiful ear-rings for the ladies, which they often use from economy. They ornament their children also with necklaces of the same substance; amber holding an equal rank here as coral in Tuscany. This custom existed even in the time of Pliny, as we may see in his Natural

Money of Sicily and the kingdom of Naples, valued at about twelve shillings, and six-pence sterling.

History, book III. chap. 27. *Infantibus adalligari amuleti ratione prodest.* I remarked, that the amulets which the children wear here are shaped like a heart.

To the above observations of the Abbè Sestini we shall add, that amber is manufactured at Catania in the same manner as ivory, upon the lathe; that it is afterwards polished with pumice stone, pulverized and moistened; and that a lustre is given to it with oil and putty of tin. The number of workmen employed in this labor is not very considerable at Catania; the case, however, is not the same at Trapani, with those who work in co-

ral, or who make cameos of shells.

It is pretended that Mr. Kerkring, about the middle of the last century, found out the secret of softening yellow amber in a different manner than by fire, and of converting it to a paste, which he formed into whatever shape he pleased. We are told also, that, a few years ago, there was a Prussian workman, who had not only the art of purifying amber, but also of dying and softening it. Amber will dissolve in spirit of wine, in oil of spikenard, or lavender, and even in linseed oil, when it has been torrifed. This substance, when thus dissolved, forms a most beautiful varnish.

## DESCRIPTION OF TOBOLSK, THE CAPITAL OF SIBERIA.

FROM PALLAS' TRAVELS.

**T**OBOLSK, the capital of Siberia, is situated on the left shore of the Irtych, and opposite the mouth of the Tobol, in longitude  $85^{\circ} 56' 30''$ , and latitude  $58^{\circ} 12' 30''$ ; at the distance of two thousand three hundred and eighty-four wersts from Moscow, and of three thousand one hundred and nineteen from Petersburg. This city originally was only a small fort, erected in 1587, but having been burnt in 1643, a town was built of wood upon its foundations. Tobolsk is divided into an upper and lower town. The upper stands upon the eastern bank of the river, which is steep, and the lower in a plain, between the Irtych and its high shore. These two towns, taken together, form a pretty considerable circumference. All the houses of the lower are of wood. The new or upper town was built of stone, in the beginning of this century. It is surrounded with a rampart of earth. There is a stone fortress here, which forms almost a square, and which contains two churches, the archbishop's palace, the chancery, and a court of commerce, consisting of seventy shops, and twenty-seven arched cellars. All these buildings are of stone. In this town there are two churches besides,

and the convent of Koschdestvinskoi. The lower town contains only seven parish churches, and the convent of Snamenskoi, built of stone. It has a communication with the upper, by means of two hundred and ninety stone steps. It has a market of its own, and a few shops. When one proposes to purchase any thing here, or at the court of commerce in the upper town, it is necessary to go thither, in the winter time, from break of day till eleven in the forenoon, and from two till four in the afternoon; in summer, from five in the morning till eleven in the forenoon, and from four till eight in the evening; for nothing is to be found except at these hours. During the time of sale the crowd is so great, that one can scarcely get through it, especially in summer, because all the inhabitants pass this way, in order to go from the lower to the upper town. Such provisions as are necessary for both towns are sold here: brokers and mercers repair also hither, to dispose of their different commodities.

The small rivers of Kourdoumka, Monastirkaia, Klajéva, Katschalovka, Piligrimka, and Soliianka, water the lower town, and discharge themselves into

into the Irtych. For this reason it is subject to inundations, which are very considerable every ten years. In 1773 the town, and the whole country, as far as Tioumen, were overflowed. The upper town, which is not exposed to the same inconvenience, is destitute of water. The inhabitants are obliged to fetch it from the bottom of the mountain. The archbishop has a well, which no person is permitted to make use of; it is thirty fathoms in depth, and was constructed at a great expence. The Irtych, sometimes, by undermining its banks, occasions some portions of the mountain to fall every year; and, on this account, the inhabitants are often under the necessity of removing, and of rebuilding their houses at a greater distance. Prince *Gagarin* having observed this falling of the earth, imagined that it was caused by the mouth of the Tobol; he, therefore, ordered a new bed to be dug for the river by the Swedish prisoners; this remedy was attended with some effect, but experience has proved that it is not sufficient. Mr. *Gmelin*, the uncle, attributes the cause of it, first to the nature of the soil, which is clayey; and secondly to the river, which undermines its banks. The earth never falls but in the spring time, when the current is swelled beyond its usual size.

The city of Tobolsk is very populous. The Tartars form a fourth part of its inhabitants; the rest are Russians, and almost all exiles, or the children of exiles. The quarter of the Tartars is situated beyond the lower town. It is the residence of the descendants of the ancient masters of Siberia. In 1736 there were reckoned to be in this place three thousand one hundred and two houses, ninety two of which belonged to the Tartars, and the Boukarski, who had a church appropriated for the performance of worship after their own manner. The number of merchants in 1773 amounted to three thousand and eighty-six. Every thing at Tobolsk is so cheap, that Mr. *Gmelin*,

who resided here in 1736, says, a man may live well for ten roubles a year. Idleness, therefore, is carried to the utmost extent. Workmen of all kinds are however found in this place; but it is so difficult to make them work, that people think themselves very happy when they can get any thing from their hands. When they have no money they labor for two hours, and gain enough to support them for a whole week. If one wishes to be properly served, it is necessary to set a guard over them, and to employ force and authority. Whatever they earn, they spend in drinking, and it is impossible to make them work while their money lasts. Bread here is sold at so reasonable a rate, that they choose to give themselves up to this indolence, for they never think of the future, and they are satisfied, if they do not die of hunger. Were it required to give a coat of arms to Tobolsk, nothing could be chosen with more propriety, for that purpose, than a cow. I never saw, in any place, so great a number of these animals in the streets; for, in winter, one cannot move a step without meeting some of them. I remarked, that almost all the cats seen here were red."

The commerce of this place is very considerable, for the Russian merchants, who trade in Siberia, and with the Chinese, pass through Tobolsk; and the caravans of the Kal-mouks, and the Boukarski, stop here all winter. There are also two fairs annually, one for Russian goods in the spring time, and another for Siberian and Chinese goods in autumn. This city is, besides, a general magazine for all the furs belonging to the crown. The archbishopric was erected in 1621; and the archbishops were made metropolitans in 1679. The most celebrated was Philopheus, who, between the years 1679 and 1721, converted a great many Pagans. The Swedish officers established a school here in 1713, and taught the Latin,

Latin, French, and German languages, drawing, geography, and geometry. This school acquired so great a reputation, that children were sent to it from a great distance; but the peace of Neustadt occasioned its destruction, as all these foreigners returned then to their own country.

There are two different roads which lead to these two towns. That which is near the river is the steepest, and goes directly towards the fortress. It is frequented principally in the spring time and summer, because it is supplied with bridges. It begins at the convent of Snamenskoi, and ends at the ramparts of the upper town. The distant parts of this road are very disagreeable. The ground, which is clayey, is so covered with mud in the spring, that it is almost impossible to extricate one's feet from it. In summer the roads are never thoroughly dry, except in the higher part. They are not passable, either in spring or summer, because they are very steep, and have no bridges. The third is more frequented in winter, and sometimes in summer, but never in the spring. It is not so steep as the two former. It has no bridges, and communicates, at its lower extremity, with a street that has bridges, and joins, near the market, to the first road.

Mr. Muller and Mr. Gmelin visited the city of Sibir, situated on the right bank of the Irtych, at the distance of twenty-three wersts from Tobolsk,

where they saw only an old wall fallen to ruins. Above, and near this place, is a small stream, called Sibirka, which throws itself into the Irtych. It appears, that this ancient city gave its name to the whole country, and to the rivulet which is in its neighbourhood.

The government of Tobolsk was much more considerable formerly, since it contained the province of Ekaterinbourg. At present it is divided into two provinces, Tobolsk and Tomsk. The first contains the following districts, or circles, Tobolsk, Tioumen, Ialoutorofsk, Omsk, Tara, Sourgout, Nadimskoi, Berezoï, and Tourins. Those of Tomsk, Atchinskoi, Taschinskoi, Kemskoi, Ieniseïk, Kaink, Narim, and Touroukanak, compose the province of Tomsk.

This government, erected in 1782, contained, according to the enumeration made the year following, 1083 merchants, 12542 citizens, 2316 peasants belonging to the lords, 213371 peasants belonging to the crown, and 28018 not taxable; in all 257330 souls.

The Irtych, which washes Tobolsk, takes its source in the desert of the Kalmouks, and, after watering an immense extent of country, crosses lake *Ner-Sai-San*; hence, as far as Tobolsk, it traverses a space of two thousand wersts, and discharges itself into the Obi, at the distance of four hundred wersts from this capital.

## LETTERS RESPECTING BARBARY, AND THE MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF THE BEDOUIN ARABS.

BY THE ABBE POIRET.

[ Continued. ]

### LETTER XXI.

To Mrs. ———

**N**OTHING, Madam, but a request so pressing as yours, could engage me to describe the manners and condition of the Arab women.

Your sex are too much degraded, and too ill treated in this country, for me ever to have attempted to delineate a picture of their situation. The Arabs

are

are not at all polite; and I should, perhaps, pardon them, were they only humane: but this virtue is so much a stranger to their hearts, that they consider a woman as a being far beneath them. It is a great deal, if they prefer her to their beast of burden.

Marriage, here, is not a contract which requires the consent of both parties. It is a bargain concluded between the parents of the woman and the person who intends to espouse her. In order to obtain her, he has no need to win her heart, or to merit her good graces; for if he presents himself, with one or two beautiful cows, well fed, he is certain of being favorably received. The parents keep the cows, and deliver over their daughter in their stead. Whether she is to be happy, or unhappy, is not their business: she is sold. If she displeases her husband he sends her back to her parents, and purchases another, or even several, if he be rich. If the repudiated woman happens to please another he may make a bargain, but the will cost him less, as she has before had another husband.

To the woman alone is committed the whole management of the family, which is very fatiguing sometimes, when these Arab hordes often change the place of their residence. To grind corn, to make it into *concoucen*, to cook it, to milk the cows, and to churn butter, all belong to the women; but this is the easiest part. Whilst the men pass their lives in idleness, they leave to the women the severest labors. It is they who cut wood, and who, with great fatigue, carry it upon their shoulders. I have often met them with burdens so enormous, that I could not distinguish, till very near, under a branchy load, a small human figure, disgusting with sweat, and extenuated with toil. It is they, also, who often sow and till the earth. Their hardships, however, are still greater, when it is necessary to pull up the poles of their tents. The husband mounts his horse very peaceably, without any other in-

cumbrance, except his arms, while the wife walks on foot, loaded with kitchen furniture, and sometimes with the tent, when there is no animal to carry it. The husband often has the cruelty to beat her severely, when in that situation she is not able to keep up with his horse. Thus is she obliged to travel across burning sands, having often nothing either to eat or to drink.

The slave, rather than the companion of her husband, she can expect from him neither tenderness nor affection. He never speaks but as an imperious master, who is sensible of that superiority which Nature has given him over the woman, by making him stronger. These unhappy wretches are subordinate to their children, and even to their slaves; they never eat till they have finished, and they are obliged to be contented with what they leave. When they are not called abroad by labor, they remain shut up in their tents, where they sit squatting down amidst filth and vermin. They almost all have the itch, and diffuse an infectious smell every where around them. Their dress consists only of a few greasy rags, which they never wash. They have no linen, and carry their whole paltry wardrobe along with them.

Employed in continual exercise, their being with child is no reason for diminishing their labors; they are never interrupted but at the moment when they bring forth. They have neither midwives nor surgeons amongst them. They all deliver themselves, and their bed of pain is the bare ground. Several of them wash their children as soon as they are born, and wrap them up in the corner of their robe; in other respects they abandon them to nature, and allow them nothing but what is necessary to support their existence. When scarcely brought to bed, these women refuse their labors, to which is added that of feeding their children. Though little cared for, extended on a small bundle of straw, scarcely covered with a few rags, without



without swaddling clothes, and without bandages, these children, however, become strong and vigorous in a little time, and soon follow their mothers to the fields.

The Arabs of the mountains are much less jealous than those in the towns; none but their chiefs keep their wives shut up. The rest, though they wished to do it, could not, unless they were resolved to supply the places of their wives in their domestic labors; but in them laziness is much more predominant than jealousy.—These women never have their faces covered, though they ought to use veils, to hide their ugliness, rather than to conceal their beauty. I never saw so disgusting creatures. Their complexion is like foot; their skin is dry and parched, and their whole body is painted with different fantastical figures, formed with gunpowder and antimony. Scarcely have they passed the bounds of infancy, when the signs of premature old age appear on their countenances. They are early deformed by wrinkles, but it is easily perceived that they are only the effects of forced labor and misfortune, and not of the ravage of years. It is impossible to behold them, and not be moved with compassion. The attracting graces of youth have not time to display themselves, and from infancy to old age there is scarcely any gradation. Dead eyes, a cast down and disordered look, hollow cheeks, a back bent by excess of labor, signs of the greatest misery in the whole external appearance, dejection, heaviness, and the most gloomy melancholy, form the portrait of the greater part of the Arab mountaineers. They marry very young, bring forth few children, and early terminate their unfortunate career.

In cities, the women lose in point of liberty, as much as they gain in point of labor. By the jealousy of their husbands, they are subjected to perpetual imprisonment. Women of distinction never go abroad; those who are seen in the streets are of the

lowest class, and even these wear a very large and thick white veil, which reaches down to their knees. They have their faces covered also with another veil, which is applied like a mask. Their under dress is a large white sheet, or blanket, arranged in the form of a robe. They all have long drawers, which descend to their heels, and on their feet they wear high-heeled shoes. In such a dress these women appear as if wrapt up in a large bale of cloth, and it is impossible to judge what they are under such a covering, which entirely conceals all their graces. In their houses they lay aside part of their dress, and in the evening, when their husbands are at the mosque, it is not uncommon to see them enjoying the cool air on their terraces; but they instantly disappear at the sight of a man—I mean a Mussulman—for they are very fond of the Christians, and when they perceive them, they readily expose to their view every thing that the jealousy of their husbands obliges them to hide. With such a disposition, and above all, under so great constraint, an intrigue might soon be formed and terminated; but here there is no greater crime than gallantry, especially in an European. If one is caught, death is unavoidable, and there are no other means of escaping it, except to embrace the religion of Mahomet, and to espouse the woman that has been seduced. If she be married, there is no resource for either of the parties. The woman is enclosed in a sack, and thrown into the sea, and the man is burnt alive, or cut into a thousand pieces.

The women in towns, not being, like the mountaineers, burnt by the sun, and oppressed by labor, are almost all very beautiful, exceedingly fair, and of an agreeable stature. Their gait is noble and grave, and their carriage is majestic, but they want those graces which are acquired by frequenting company. Lost to the world, and to the sweets of social life, these charming sequestered females live only for one man, who

gives himself little trouble to indemnify them for the loss of liberty.— I have the honor to be, &c.

## LETTER XXII.

TO DR. FORESTIER.

I HAVE lately, my dear doctor, had a very interesting meeting. As I was preparing to set out for *Constantine*, Mr. Desfontaine came from that place to Bonne. For two years he has been travelling in Barbary, having been sent thither by the Academy of Sciences, in order to make researches in Natural History, and particularly in Botany. This happy circumstance made me change my plan, and I deferred my journey to *Constantine*, that I might take advantage of the short time which Mr. Desfontaine intends yet to pass in Barbary. This learned Academician was kind enough to associate me with him in his researches, and to communicate to me whatever information he had acquired. Our principal excursions were as follows.

After having employed almost fifteen days in traversing to a considerable distance the environs of Bonne, where we still found some autumnal plants, we departed for la Calle, accompanied by two *Deras*, or Moorish soldiers, and two other Moors to conduct our baggage. The first day we went to Mazoule, where we erected our tent in the garden of Ali-Bey, the chief, in order to pass the night, and next morning we went to visit the *Bastion of France*, turning a little out of our route. Here we found nothing but ruins, a few mouldering walls, fallen houses, heaps of stones, and very beautiful cellars. This place, which was formerly the centre of the commerce of the African company, and its principal factory, is at present absolutely deserted, surrounded by thick bushes, and steep rocks, the retreat of panthers and lions. All the level country around

is unhealthy and infectious, on account of several large lakes which it contains. At the Bastion we collected various beautiful marine plants and corallines; but I shall never forget the acquisition which we made of a most delightful species of *Ipomea*. A flower as large as that of the common bind-weed, but of a more beautiful red, rose amidst impenetrable bushes. In striking our eyes, it greatly excited our desire; but it was extremely difficult to get possession of it. The spot had a marshy bottom; vegetation was there very luxuriant, and besides serpents and other ferocious animals, which it might hide from our view, it was an arduous task to penetrate to the distance of half a gun shot, amidst thorns and briars, among which we were entirely concealed. Notwithstanding all this, we hazarded the enterprise, and marching sometimes above and sometimes below the bushes, we at length reached that beautiful plant; but covered with sweat, and having our clothes torn to rags, and our hands besmeared with blood. This, however, was not the only plant which indemnified us for our labor. We found also several other new species. After this we proceeded to la Calle, where we were received without being subjected to perform quarantine, as at that time there was no suspicion of the plague in the neighbourhood. La Calle is a place which undoubtedly must be interesting to the naturalist. The coral fishery, marine productions, the variety of its wild and uncultivated environs, lakes, meads, woods, mountains, and plains of sand, present a multitude of plants, insects, birds, and reptiles, little or not at all known.

We spent two weeks at la Calle, after which, I again accompanied Mr. Desfontaine to Bonne, where he was to embark in order to return to France. The day on which we arrived at this city, will never be effaced from my memory, on account of the dangers and fatigue to which we were exposed.

posed. On that day we proposed to travel twenty-four leagues. Setting out, therefore, at three in the morning, we had scarcely advanced half a league, when a heavy rain came on, which never ceased till we reached Bonne, and did not permit us to stop even for a moment to take a little refreshment. We made our repast like the ancient knights, trotting along, and without ever quitting our saddles. When we arrived at the river *Seibouse*, which is almost as large as the Seine, it was night, and there was no bridge. People generally pass it at some ford, by swimming, or in a boat, which then happened to be on the opposite side, without the boatman; but one of the Moors who accompanied us threw himself into the stream, and having swam over, brought it to us. Having embarked with all our effects, we attempted to make our horses pass over, whilst we held the bridles; but their efforts in the water still brought us back to the shore, and impeded the action of our oars. Being therefore obliged to leave them at liberty, we were lucky enough, after an hour's labor, to see them arrive before us on the other bank.

Mr. Desfontaine got first to land, on the shoulders of a Moor, from whom I expected the same service; but as our horses began to kick at each other, and as we were afraid of losing them, it being dark, my fellow travellers employed their first care to catch them, which they did not accomplish without some difficulty. During this time I remained forgotten, and alone in the boat, which, without my perceiving it, got insensibly loose, and I was carried by the current to the distance of a quarter of a league towards the sea. Mr. Desfontaine first observing this accident, informed me of my danger, and I immediately attempted to row, but I was so confused and so unskilful in managing the oars, that I must have infallibly perished, had not the Moor again thrown himself into the river, and brought me sound and safe to the shore.

When I had got out of this embarrassment, we sought for a place where we might pass the night, sheltered from the rain, which poured down upon us. The gates of Bonne were then shut; but, at all events, we resolved to proceed towards that city. We were then in a vast marsh, between Bonne and the ancient Hippo, which was intersected by several deep fissures, and almost covered with water. We wandered nearly two hours amidst the water, without knowing whither we went, whilst our horses, through excess of fatigue, stumbled at every step, or capered about, frightened by the lightning, and the noise of the thunder, which rolled over our heads. In this alarming situation our party had almost determined to wait for the return of day; but we continued our journey, till at length we heard, all of a sudden, the voice of an Arab, who informed us, that, if we advanced four steps farther, we should be lost in a very deep rivulet; but he refused, for more than half an hour, to put us in the right way. We were obliged to pay him beforehand, and even when he had received our money, he left us, and betook himself to flight. He, however, kept his word, and having made us pass the rivulet at a ford, conducted us to the gates of Bonne, where we could not get admittance.

We had then no other resource but to pass the rest of the night in a *fontauk*, or Moorish inn, without the gates of the city, which was frequented by the most infamous of the people. As soon as we made our appearance, we were loaded with invective and maledictions by the Arabs, who lodged in it. However, by the force of disputing with them, and, above all, by offering them money, they received us, and conducted us to a garret, where we found no other furniture but a plain mat. We were exceedingly cold, and the water ran down on all sides from our clothes, which we were obliged to keep on our bodies, having none else to change them.

In this miserable situation we still found ourselves very happy in comparison of what we might have been, and we gave ourselves up to that joy which is inspired by the remembrance of past danger. Stretched out on a mat, instead of a bed, with my wet clothes for a covering, and my head supported by my saddle, I hoped, by the help of a small pan of coals, which had been brought us, to enjoy a little repose; but the badness of the weather prevented me. A heavy rain, accompanied with hail, instantly filled our garret with water, to the depth of two inches, which set our wretched mat afloat; and at every clap of thunder pieces were detached from the cieling, which fell over our bodies. I imagined that we should have been buried under these ruins amidst the water, which entered more and more; but, luckily, there was in this apartment, as in all those of the Arabs, a piece of wood that went across, in the form of a beam, at the height of four feet, upon which they placed their saddles and horse furniture. Upon this we were obliged to roost, in order to avoid the water. At the break of day we entered Bonne, and repaired to the African Company's factory, where the good treatment we met with made us forget all our fatigues. I have the honor to be, &c.

## LETTER XXIII.

TO THE SAME.

It is very difficult, my dear Doctor, for those who are fond of natural history, to remain long inactive in a country like this. Scarcely, therefore, had we recovered from the fatigues of our former journey, when we thought of again renewing them. Having heard a great deal concerning certain boiling fountains, which are found half way to Constantine, and which in the country are called *Hammam meskoutene*, the enchanted baths, we formed a project of visiting them; and having obtained from the Kaide

of Bonne four horsemen to escort us, we set out on our expedition.

The first day was extremely pleasant, except that we had some rain, which wet our clothes, but the sun had sufficient power to dry them. After traversing the vast plain of Bonne, we stopped at the first mountains, where we found, in the clefts of the rocks, several perpendicular strata of heavy spar. We terminated our first days course at the distance of six leagues farther, amidst these mountains, and erected our tent near a pretty considerable *douare*. At first we were exposed to some insults from the Moors, who are not much accustomed to see Christians; but the appearance of our horsemen kept them a good deal in awe. The succeeding night was prodigiously stormy. All the defiles of these mountains are inhabited by lions, which, with their horrid roaring, kept us in continual alarm till break of day, but none of them approached us near enough to occasion any terror.

Next morning, after passing a ridge of mountains, which are connected with Mount Atlas, having no other road but very steep rocks, profound abysses, desert and gloomy forests, and very dangerous hollows, we descended by a gentle declivity into a large valley, in which are the boiling fountains. From these hollows a thick and black vapor arises, which corrupts the air to a great distance around. Nature, in this place, appeared to us to be convulsed, and the calcined and burning earth made our horses rear up at every step. The water here, instead of being pure and limpid, issues hot from the earth, carrying bitumen and sulphur along with it. It boils up to the tops of some small hillocks, from which it runs by circular openings, about two feet in diameter, and falling in sheets forms a small stream, that runs through the bottom of the valley, growing still larger in its course. We could follow it only with the eye through enormous rocks, rising like so many peaks.

Having penetrated to the circular openings

openings of which I have spoken, we collected some very beautiful productions, particularly calcareous sediments, deposited in the figure of stars, mushrooms, eels, &c. They approach much to the *zeolithes* \*, and, like them, dissolve in nitrous acid; but it was not without great trouble and danger that we could carry them away. Besides being suffocated by the water, we were obliged to take great care not to dip our feet in it, or to burn our hands, whilst we were endeavoring to procure any of these productions. Besides this, the earth being every where hollow and calcined, might, at every step, break under the feet of the naturalist, who would not escape unhurt from such a hot bath: One must examine it with care, and advance with much precaution, endeavoring to shun the water, which flows from all parts. However, notwithstanding all our attention, our hands, clothes, and shoes suffered considerably; but we collected some beautiful stalactites of native sulphur and vitriol. In those places where the water boiled up with the greatest force, the mercury rises to  $76^{\circ}$ ; but, in proportion as the surface of the water is enlarged, it falls at certain distances. We met with large pyramids of calcareous calcined stones, the formation of which may be easily accounted for. The water, formerly spouting up to their tops, and falling afterwards in sheets, has almost undermined the earth in the neighbourhood, and formed these natural pyramids. On several of them are still found ancient craters, now filled up, and almost destroyed.

The Moors come to bathe in these places where the heat of the water can be endured, and they find it very serviceable for the rheumatism, gout, and various disorders of the skin. These waters were known to the Romans, who probably converted them into warm baths. Near this place we observed a Roman building, which was in complete prefer-

vation, except that it wanted the roof.

The space occupied by these different springs is about twelve hundred feet square. We were obliged to make our observations rather in haste, that we might not be surprized by night on this dangerous spot, or be interrupted in our researches by the arrival of more of the wild Arabs. At first there were only three or four of them, but their number gradually increased, and though we gave them a share of our provisions, they began to insult us. We, however, paid little attention to them; but one of our *Spahis* having overheard a plot, which they were forming, to surprize us in a very narrow defile, and to rob and assassinate us, we immediately mounted our horses, and hastened to get at a distance from these *banditti*, who loaded us with abuse, when they saw us escape; we had the good fortune to pass through the dangerous spot, in which they were to wait for us, before they had time to collect their forces. These wretches live dispersed in the forests, where they inhabit hollow rocks, from which they never come forth but to fall upon the traveller, in order to rob and murder him. They neither keep flocks nor sow corn; roots and wild fruit are their nourishment, when they cannot procure any other from civilized hordes. In their figures they exhibit every mark of ferocity, and of extreme indigence. They go almost all naked; their complexion is of an olive color, and their countenances are meagre and emaciated.

When we arrived at the summit of the highest mountain we were attacked by so heavy and copious a shower of hail, that our horses refused to advance, and kept us in the same position for more than half an hour. This storm was succeeded by a very cold rain, which did not leave us for the space of six leagues.

Night began to overtake us, and we had great need for repose, and

\* Or, *Lufus naturæ*.



above all, of a place of shelter where we might dry our clothes and warm ourselves. Turning aside a little from our route, we met, on the declivity of a mountain, a horde of Arabs, tributary to the Bey of Constantine, to whom we addressed ourselves, with a view of passing the night under one of their tents, for we could not erect our own, the earth being every where covered with water. At first they started many difficulties, protesting that they had no food either for us or our horses; but some blows with a stick, applied by the brawny arms of our *Spabis*, made them soon find every thing that we stood in need of. These foldiers are so dreaded by the tributary Arabs, that they commit the most detestable cruelties with impunity. They never ask for any thing but with a stick or a sabre in their hands.

It is very true, that among the Arabs this is the only method of obtaining even the necessaries of life, money, of which, however, they are so greedy, has less power over them than threats and blows. Such manners are so astonishing and so different from ours, that I may venture to say they are hardly credible. Notwithstanding this I have every day an opportunity of observing them. To excite a certain respect in the minds of the Arabs, and to obtain any thing from them, one must be very cautious not to employ that mild and polite manner which distinguishes a polished people, or to testify before them either gratitude or friendship. They then imagine that they are feared, and they become much haughtier, much more impertinent, and much more obstinate in refusing every thing. If one, on the contrary, overawes them by threatening looks, commands like a despot, or treats them as contemptible slaves, they are tractable and submissive, and dare not refuse any thing; they come humbly to kiss the feet of their tyrant, and treat the meanest soldier in the Turkish militia as their lord and their master: blows, therefore, are a necessary ceremony. Whilst they are administering the wo-

men come forth from their tents, and begin to howl in a most frightful manner; but their cries do not suspend even for a moment the arms of the Turkish foldiers. When ours had signified their request we were introduced into a tent, and we were not long before we had every thing that we wished for. We were, however, very uncomfortable under a torn tent, that admitted the light on all sides. Rain, accompanied with hail and thunder, continued the whole night, which we passed in our wet clothes, stretched out on the damp ground, and trembling with cold. We lay promiscuously among the Arab men and women, amidst cows, sheep, and goats, which, being too familiar for us, crept softly along our backs to dry their fleeces. In beds like ours one is not tempted to indulge in the sweets of morning sleep. At the break of day, every thing being ready for our departure, we privately slipped a few pieces of money into the hands of our hosts, without the knowledge of our *Spabis*, who would have taken it from them had they observed us.

We arrived at Bonne without any other accident than being pelted with hail and rain, which did not leave us till towards the middle of the third day.

The road which we followed was in part the ancient Roman road that conducted from Hippo to Cirta. We found it almost entire in several places, and we saw, at certain distances, the ruins of ancient houses, built of square stones. For several leagues we were obliged to clamber up mountains so steep, that our horses found it difficult to keep their feet. The ground was remarkably stoney and uneven; shod horses could never have passed it: but the Arabs are not acquainted with the custom of shoeing. Another passage, still more dangerous, is that of the *Seibouse*, which we were under the necessity of crossing five or six times by fording it. When it flows between mountains its bed is full of large round pebbles, upon which the horses cannot place their feet without stumbling.

stumbling. Ours had the water sometimes above their saddles. In winter, when this river is swelled, a great many people are lost in it. The Romans had built several bridges over it, but they were all destroyed by the Arabs; nothing is now to be seen of them but their ruins.

A few days after our return to *Bonne*, Mr. Desfontaine embarked for *Marfeilles*. I could not see him depart

without regret; but the hopes of having acquired so valuable a friend, alleviated the sorrow I felt at being so soon separated from him. When the weather becomes more favorable, I expect to continue my excursions. The autumnal rains have re-animated vegetation, and made us enjoy, since the month of January, all the beauties of spring. I have the honor to be, &c.

# ACCOUNT OF SOME ANCIENT TOMBS FOUND IN THE NORTH.

BY MR. PAUL DEMIDOFF.

THE Russians, in constructing a road from their country to China, discovered, in the fiftieth degree of northern latitude, and between the rivers Irtych and Obalet, a very extensive desert, covered in many places with tombs, or barrows, which have been mentioned by Bell and several other travellers. This desert is situated at the southern extremity of Siberia. It is said, that the inhabitants of the neighboring country have, for several years, searched here for hidden treasures, and that, among the ashes and bones of dead bodies, they have, at different times, found considerable quantities of gold, silver, copper, and precious stones, as well as the handles of sabres, ancient armour, saddle ornaments, bridles, and other horse furniture, together with the bones of animals, and particularly of the elephant.

The court of Russia, informed of these depredations, sent a general officer, with a sufficient body of troops, to open such of these tombs as had not been touched, and, in the name of the crown, to seize on what they contained. This officer, having examined these innumerable monuments dispersed throughout this vast desert, concluded that the largest barrow was, without doubt, the burying place of the prince or chief of some ancient nation. After having ordered a large quantity of earth and stones to be carried away, the workmen found

three vaults, constructed of stones very rudely cut. That in which the prince was deposited was in the centre, and larger than the rest; it was easily distinguished by a sabre, a lance, a bow, and a quiver filled with arrows, which were placed by his side. The next vault was close to his feet, and contained his horse, his saddle, his bridle, and his spurs. The body of the prince was stretched out on a leaf of gold, that reached from his head to his feet, and was covered with another leaf of gold, equal in size to the former. It was wrapped up in a rich mantle, fringed with gold, and ornamented with rubies and diamonds. The head, neck, breast, and arms were entirely naked, and without any ornament whatever. The last vault contained the body of a woman, which was distinguished by the ornaments proper to her sex. She was resting against the wall, and had around her neck a gold chain, of several links, enriched with rubies, and gold bracelets on her arms. Her head, neck, and breast were naked. The body, covered with a beautiful robe, but not embroidered, was placed between two leaves of fine gold. The four leaves weighed forty pounds. The robes of both the prince and the princess appeared to be still perfect and brilliant; but they crumbled into dust as soon as they were touched. Search was made also in the rest of the tombs; this one, however,

however, was the most remarkable. A great number of curious things was found in them.

The tombs dispersed throughout the neighbourhood of this plain are probably those of the ancient Tartar heroes, who fell in the field of battle; but we are entirely ignorant of the epoch or history of these events. Some Tartars informed Mr. Bell, that this country had been the theatre of several battles, between Tamerlane and the Kalmouk Tartars, whom this conqueror in vain attempted to subdue.

To this account we shall add that of Mr. Bell, which is as follows, "About eight or ten days journey from Tomsky there is a plain, containing the tombs of several heroes who have perished in combat. They may easily be distinguished by heaps of earth and stones, with which they are covered. It is not known when, or by whom these battles were fought, in a country lying so far towards the north. The Tartars of Baraba informed me, that Tamerlane, or Timyr-Ack-Sack, as they call him, had in these places fought several times against the Kalmouks, without being able to subdue them. Many people from the neighbouring places go to these tombs every summer, where they dig up the earth, and find gold, silver, copper, precious stones, the handles of sabres, and various pieces of armour, as also horse furniture, saddles and bridles, with the bones of horses and elephants; from which it appears, that when a general, or any other person of dis-

tingtion died, his arms, his horse, and his equeerry, were interred in the same tomb with him. This custom still prevails among the Kalmouk and other Tartars, and appears to be very ancient. It is easy to judge, from the number of these tombs, that several thousands of men must have perished on these plains; for though the inhabitants of the environs have dug there for many years, they still find new ones. It is true that those who search for treasures here are often interrupted in their work, and plundered by the Kalmouks, who cannot suffer the ashes of the dead to be disturbed.

"I have seen several pieces of armour and other curiosities taken from these tombs, and among others the equestrian figure of a man, armed capapie, which was of cast metal, and formed with great art. I have seen also the figures of some deer, made of fine gold, which were cleft in the belly, and pierced with several holes. These, perhaps, were used for ornamenting quivers and horse furniture.

"Whilst I was at Tomsky, one of the people who had been employed in searching these tombs told me, that he once discovered an arched chamber, in which he found the skeleton of a man, lying upon a silver table, with his bow, arrows, and lance placed by his side; that the skeleton crumbled to dust as soon as it was touched, but that the table and the arms were worth a considerable sum."

#### METHOD PRACTISED AT PASSY TO CULTIVATE RADISHES FOR SALLAD, AND TO HAVE THEM AT ALL SEASONS.

**T**AKE the seeds of the common radish, and lay them in river water, to steep for twenty four hours, then put them quite wet into a small linnen bag, well tied at the mouth with a pack-thread. If you have steeped a large quantity of seeds,

you may divide them into several bags. Expose this bag in a place where it will receive the greatest heat of the sun, for about twenty four hours, at the end of which time the seed will begin to grow, and you may then sow it in the usual manner

in





*Gignion sculpt.*

THE APOLLO BELVIDERE.

*Rev<sup>d</sup> as the Act directs 1 March 1790 by G. Forster N<sup>o</sup> 41 Poultry.*







THE APOLLO BELVEDERE.

Represents the God of the Sun and Poetry.

in earth well exposed to the heat of the sun.

Prepare two small tubs, to cover each other exactly. These may be easily provided, by sawing a small cask through the middle, and they will serve in winter; in summer one will be sufficient for each kind of earth that has been sown.

As soon as you have sown your seeds, you must cover them with your tub, and at the end of three days, you will find radishes of the size and thickness of young lettuces, having at their extremities two small round leaves, rising from the earth, of a reddish or yellow color. These radishes, cut or pulled up, will be excellent, if mixed with sallad. They have a much more delicate taste than

those common radishes, which are eat with salt.

By taking the following precautions, one may have them in winter, and even during the hardest frosts. After having steeped the seeds in warm water, and exposed them to the sun, as already directed, or in a place sufficiently hot to make them shoot forth, warm two tubs; fill one of them with earth well dunged; sow your seeds in it, and cover it with the other tub: you must be careful to sprinkle it with warm water, as often as it may be necessary. Carry the two tubs closely joined, so as to cover each other, to a warm vault or cellar, and at the end of fifteen days you may gather your sallad.

## ACCOUNT OF THE STATUE CALLED THE APOLLO BELVIDERE.

WITH A BEAUTIFUL ENGRAVING.

**A** POLLO, the inventor and god of music, poetry, medicine, and of the art of divination, the head of the Nine Muses, and the father of light, according to mythologists, was the son of Jupiter and Latona. He was born in the island of Delos, and his first exploit was to kill the serpent Python, which for a long time had tormented his mother Latona. Some time after this victory, he had a son, named Esculapius, whom Jupiter struck with thunder; which so enraged Apollo, that he killed the Cyclops who had forged the thunderbolts of the king of the gods. Being on this account expelled from heaven, he fled to Admetus, king of Thessaly, whose flocks he kept, and from whose service he went into that of Laomedon. With Neptune he was employed under that Prince in making brick, and in building the walls of Troy, a service for which these two gods were never rewarded. Having wandered a long time over the earth, the misfortunes which he

suffered at length appeased Jupiter, and he restored him to his divinity, and to all the privileges annexed to it.

The Pagans believed that this god delivered oracles, and many went to consult him at Delos. The worship of Apollo was always so much respected, that when the Persians landed with a fleet of a thousand ships, they did not venture to make the least devastation, nor to plunder the temple of the god, though it was filled with immense riches. Apollo was honored also at Claros, Delphos, and many other places. It was in honor of him that Augustus established the Actian games, which were celebrated every five years at Rome, in commemoration of the victory of Actium. He had also a superb temple, with a grove and beautiful fountains, at Daphne, a delightful spot, situated at the distance of four miles from Antioch, in Syria. The beauty of this retreat, and the festivals often celebrated in it in honor of Apollo

and Diana, made it a general place of resort for all the inhabitants of the city, as well as for strangers. Historians who make mention of it say, that every thing was found in it which could gratify the passions: for this reason, Chrysostom calls it an infamous place, the entrance of which ought to be forbidden to honest people. Hence comes the proverb, so well known among the ancients, *Daphneis moribus vivere*, to live like the people of Daphne.

The statues and heads of Apollo, which have been handed down to us from the ancients, are all remarkable for the beauty of the face, which has an air that cannot well be conceived but by the help of the artist. He is generally represented handsomer than Mercury, and much less effeminate than Bacchus, who is his rival for beauty. His features are fine, and his limbs well-proportioned; with as much softness as is consistent with strength. He is always young and beardless; and his long hair, when unconfined, floats over his shoulders, and sometimes over his breast.

It would be tedious to mention all the different characters, under which this deity was worshipped by the ancients. In the annexed plate, he is represented under that of *Apollo Pythionem jaculans*, or the *Pythian Apollo*. Of all the statues of ancient Greece, still existing in Italy, this colossal one of Parian marble, preserved in the *Cortile di Belvidere*,\* is considered as the most beautiful. It was dug out of some ruins at Nettuno, a town in the territory of Rome, near the ancient *Antium*; and as Nero had a palace there, in which he had collected a vast number of the finest statues, this in all probability was one of them. It exhibits the god a moment after he had discharged an arrow at the serpent called *Python*,

which was produced by the slime or mud of Deucalion's† flood. As this statue was broken and mutilated when first found, some parts of it were afterwards restored.

The celebrated Abbé Winkelman, so well known on account of his unfortunate death, describes this beautiful statue in the following words: "Of all the productions of art, which have escaped the ravages of time, this statue of Apollo is doubtless the most sublime. The artist formed this work merely from idea, and has employed nothing but what was necessary for executing his thought, and rendering it perceptible to the senses. As much as the description which Homer has given of Apollo surpasses those of other poets, so much does this figure surpass all other representations of the god. His stature here is above that of man, and his attitude breathes majesty. An eternal spring, such as that which reigns in the Elysian fields, clothes his beautiful person with the amiable graces of youth, and casts a brilliant but mild lustre over the noble structure of his limbs. Try to penetrate the kingdom of incorporeal beauties, seek to become the author of a celestial being, to elevate your soul to the contemplation of supernatural beauty; for here there is nothing mortal—nothing that is subject to the wants of humanity. This body is neither warmed by veins, nor agitated by nerves; but a celestial spirit, diffused like smooth water, circulates, as one may say, over all the contour of this figure. The god has followed the Python, against which he has, for the first time, bent his formidable bow; in his rapid course he has come up with it, and given it the mortal wound. From the height of

\* In the Vatican at Rome.

† See the Story in the Fourth Book of Ovid's *Metamorphoses*.

his joy, his august look penetrates into eternity, and extends far beyond his victory. Disdain appears seated on his lips; the indignation which he breathes swells his nostrils, and rises even to his eye-brows. An eternal peace is, however, imprinted on his forehead, and his eye is full of mildness, as if he were in the midst of the Muses, eager to lavish his caresses upon them. Among all the figures of Jupiter that have reached us, we shall in none of them find the father of the gods approach this grandeur, and manifest himself with so much majesty to the intelligence of the poet, as in the features here exhibited by his son. The individual beauties of all the gods are united in this figure, as in that of Pandora. This forehead is the forehead of Jupiter, including that of Minerva. These eye-brows, by their motion, announce their will; those eyes are the eyes of the queen of heaven, and it is this mouth that inspired pleasure into the beautiful Bacchus. Like the tender shoots of the vine, his graceful hair floats around his head, as if it were gently agitated by the breath of the zephyrs. It seems to be besprinkled with the essence of the gods, and to be tied carelessly by the hands of the Graces. When I behold this master-piece, I forget the whole world, and I myself assume a nobler attitude to survey it with more dignity. From admiration I pass to ecstacy, and I perceive my breast heave and dilate, a circumstance which those experience who are filled with the spirit of divination. I am transported to Delos, to the hallowed groves of Lycia—the places which Apollo honored with his presence; for the figure now before my eyes seems to acquire motion, like the beauty formerly produced by the chisel of Pygmalion. O inimitable Apollo, in what words can I describe thee?—Art for that purpose must deign to inspire me, and to guide my pen. The traces which I have sketched out, I deposit at thy feet—thus those who cannot reach to the head of the deity whom they revere, lay at his feet those garlands with which they wish to crown him.”

#### ANECDOTES RESPECTING THE LIFE AND DISCOVERIES OF PYTHAGORAS.

IN the present age, consecrated to the sciences, it may be of the highest utility to recall to our remembrance the labors of the ancients. Proud of our modern discoveries, we are, as it were, naturally inclined to despise antiquity; but, if we except chemistry, there is not, perhaps, any of the grand truths demonstrated at present, which were not conjectured, and even half proved, by the Greeks and the Romans. The ancients, it is true, gave birth to many chimeras, but how many absurd systems have not also been formed among us? The errors of the ancients had their rise in the infancy of the arts and the

sciences; they were therefore excusable. The more ignorant people are, the more precipitate they are in judging. Even genius itself, hurried away by its own activity, cannot avoid this fault. It eagerly embraces those ideas which please it, displays them without taking proper time to collect the necessary materials, makes a bad use of its own powers, and forms a new sect. As Pythagoras, who had some preconception of the principal discoveries in natural philosophy, was often led astray by his imagination, a few details respecting his life may not be uninteresting.

Pythagoras was born, as Cicero  
P 2 tells



tells us, about the time of the expulsion of the Tarquins, and not in the time of Numa. Having heard the philosopher Pherecides, he who first maintained that brutes were only mere machines, discourse on the nature of the soul, he quitted the profession of a wrestler, to give himself up to the study of philosophy. One could not then acquire knowledge but by travelling. Samos, the country of Pythagoras, could not boast of having learned men amongst its citizens, and the Greeks had not begun to make a conspicuous figure by their learning and talents, whilst Egypt had long cultivated the useful sciences. Pythagoras, on this account, resided there for the space of twenty-two years. The wisdom of the Magi was already celebrated; Zoroaster was alive, and the Grecian philosopher spent several years with him at Babylon, during the Jewish captivity. He afterwards visited India, but the conversation which he had with the learned in all these countries, served only to make him more modest. Every one knows that Pythagoras first made use of the word *Philosopher*, that is to say, *friend of wisdom*, instead of the term *sage*, in which all those gloried who pursued study. When he returned to his own country, he did not remain there long, for not being able to endure the tyranny of the government, he retired to that part of Italy called Great Greece, and on this account the sect that he formed was called the *Italick*. Here he soon acquired a very high degree of reputation, and was considered as an extraordinary man, and one sent from the gods. Overcome by the force of his reasoning, the people of Crotona, as is said, renounced their debauchery, to embrace the practice of those virtues which he taught; and what is no less difficult to be believed, the women, abjuring luxury and dress, threw their gold and their jewels into the flames. We may, however, rest assured, that he had great influence over the government of several cities, and among

others, over that of Metapontum, Tarentum, and Crotona; and that he always gave proofs of his being animated with a love of good order, and of peace. We must not believe all those tales unworthy of him, which have been related, concerning the origin of this power. It is pretended, that having concealed himself in a cave below the earth, and being informed by his mother of every thing that passed among the living, he shewed himself suddenly to the people, who had supposed him to be dead, and speaking to them of what they had done in his absence, he made them believe that he had returned from hell. Pythagoras was too great a man to demean himself in this manner. The authors of his life, having written a long time after the period in which he lived, collected all those popular reports, to which imagination, or the high ideas entertained of this philosopher, had given birth. For this reason, little dependence is to be placed on what is related of his death. It is better to conclude that it was natural, than to imagine with some that he suffered himself to die of hunger, or with others, that the people of Crotona, suspecting their benefactor to have entered into a conspiracy against them, set fire to the house, in which he had shut himself up with his scholars. Several of the Fathers have believed that Pythagoras was a Jew, and circumcised; some have taken him for Ezekiel; and a certain author pretends, that in the last century, the Carmelites maintained, in a thesis at Beziers, that Pythagoras was a Carmelite, and Prior of their convents at Samos and Crotona. A collection of the maxims of the Pythagoreans, has been attributed to Pope Sixtus I. The Romans erected a statue to this philosopher, which seems to prove, that he was held by them in great estimation.

The Pythagoreans acknowledged only one God, a pure spirit, incapable of suffering, like to himself alone, and creator of every thing that exists.

ists. In him are united, in the highest degree, two of the noblest presents that he has bestowed on man, truth and love. Pythagoras durst not venture to say, that any thing was impossible with God. Descartes, among the moderns, shewed a respect equally great. It is, however, doing no injury to the Deity, nay, it is rather admiring in him the most sublime of all perfections, to suppose him incapable of doing things repugnant to reason. With respect to the soul, Pythagoras fell into an error very common among the Pagans. He believed that it formed a part of the substance of the Deity. This doctrine he derived from the Perses, among whom Bernier, the celebrated traveller, found it still existing. According to them, God draws the souls of men from his own substance, as a spider draws from its entrails threads, which it sometimes resumes after it has formed them. But what becomes then of the unity and simplicity of God? What becomes of his purity, and all his perfections, since our souls bear in them so many spots and stains? In such a case, we may well say with Fontenelle, *if God made man after his own image, man has well repaid him*. Pythagoras taught also the metempsychosis. Some pretended, that he employed it as an emblem to reform men from their vicious courses. It then became, like the story of the companions of Ulysses, an allegory highly worthy of a philosopher, had he not seen in our souls a particle of the divinity. His disciples, however, took the meaning of it in a literal sense, and several Christians, among whom we may quote Manes, adopted their doctrine.

Pythagoras, according to Aristotle, is the first philosopher who treated of morals, the basis of which was the love of truth. The word, therefore, of a Pythagorean, like that of a Quaker, was equivalent to an oath. To attain to truth, Pythagoras required that people should continually

combat ignorance of the mind, and the passions. He generally disguised his precepts under a symbolical form, which he did not explain to every body. To put his disciples in mind, that they should foresee in the morning all the actions of the day, and to examine their consciences in the evening, he recommended to them to scratch their foreheads when they went out, and the back part of their heads when they entered. When he was desirous of inviting them to preserve tranquillity of soul, he advised them not to eat their hearts. In his language, to incite anger by invective, was to stir the fire with a sword. But to see his morality more stripped of its dress, one must read *The Golden Verses*, a work of Lysis, which is, however, attributed to Pythagoras.

His discoveries in natural philosophy were astonishing. He was the first who had an idea of the system of Copernicus; for he imagined that the universe revolved round a central fire, which vivified all nature, and which was the source of motion. He boasted of understanding the harmony of the heavens, which in his style apparently signified that he was sure of the truth of his opinion. The ancient authors thought, however, that he spoke without metaphor, and they have each explained this idea according to the notions which they formed of the planetary system. How can it be supposed, said they, that such large bodies should move in silence? In this manner, they made the planets not to float in a vacuum. They afterwards divided the whole space which separates the earth from the stars, into six or seven parts, forming a gamut of six or seven tones. According to Pliny, the moon, being distant 126,000 stadia from us, produced a full tone; above her, Mercury and Venus rendered each half a tone; the sun being much farther removed from Venus, formed a tone and a half, and Jupiter and Saturn had each their semitone; but the starry heavens produced a tone  
and

and a half, like the sun. If this was the opinion of Pythagoras, we must confess, that by changing the relation and distances of the planets, we have greatly deranged his system. In short, he affirmed that every thing in the world was harmony. This idea pleased the imagination of Descartes, and Mr. Bernardin de St. Pierre revived it. Pythagoras discovered this harmony between different beings, by the combination of numbers; but it is not known whether these numbers were the signs or the principles of things. He was the first who admitted the sphericity of the earth, and the existence of antipodes. He was acquainted with the obliquity of the ecliptic, and first shewed how the moon borrowed her light from the sun. Antonio de Dominis, in explaining the phenomena of the rainbow, has done nothing, as we may say, but repeat what Pythagoras had advanced before him. To this philosopher we are indebted also for the knowledge of several stars. For the time in which he lived, he was a very great geometrician. It was he who discovered that beautiful proposition, respecting the square of the hypotenuse. Every person in the least acquainted with the mathematics, knows what is meant by the hypotenuse, the largest side of a right-angled triangle, or that which is opposite to the right angle. Pythagoras found that a square constructed upon this side, was equal to the squares constructed upon the other two; an important discovery, the full utility of which he readily comprehended, since, as is said, he immediately offered up a hecatomb through gratitude.

His reputation procured him a multitude of disciples, but he was remarkably severe in his choice. He first examined their gestures, their manner of laughing, their gait, and above all, the features of the young candidates; an excellent method, for the worthless, notwithstanding all their art, almost always betray their inclinations by their looks. He af-

terwards put them upon a state of probation for several years, and silence was one of the first restraints which he imposed on them. His disciples never eat flesh or fish, but vegetables and herbs, the only food which, according to Pythagoras, did not render the genius dull. The authority of their chief in this respect was considered as a sovereign law; and for this reason, when they disputed, or were in a state of uncertainty respecting any point, it was sufficient to repeat these words, *the master has said so*. They then reasoned no farther, and submitted without any appeal. The Pythagoreans had all their wealth in common, and entertained for each other the tenderest friendship. It is related that a Pythagorean, being about to die, and having nothing to pay for the expences of his sickness, ordered his host to fix up a paper which he gave him. This paper contained the history of his latter days, and a symbol of Pythagoras. Some time after another Pythagorean, having read this bill, paid the host for every thing he had advanced. There are associations among us, the members of which are no strangers to circumstances of the same kind.

The learned have had many, but fruitless disputes, on abstinence from beans; a point of doctrine which Pythagoras, as is said, borrowed from the Egyptians. The most ingenious opinion that has been advanced on this subject, is, that under this emblem he interdicted his disciples from seeking after dignities and great places; for at elections and trials, sentence was past, and suffrages were given by beans. This was one of the great secrets of the Pythagoreans. We are even assured, that two women, attached to this sect, having been interrogated, and closely pressed on this subject, one of them suffered herself to be killed rather than speak, and the other cut out her tongue, lest she might have the weakness to yield to temptation. It however appears probable, according to the opinion

opinion of Aristoxenes, that Pythagoras readily eat beans, and that he found them very good.

Pythagoras left several works, which

he forbid to be made public. Plato found means to procure them, and paid at the rate of upwards of eight hundred pounds sterling for them.

## REFLECTIONS UPON TRAGEDY, AND THE CHOICE OF SUBJECTS.

BY MR. DUCRAY DU MINIL.

TRANSLATED FROM THE FRENCH.

**A**N Italian author says, " If tragedy, to distinguish it from comedy, ought to be the representation of some terrible action, made to rouse sensibility, it may be easily seen, that a tragedy which contains neither an amorous intrigue, nor a marriage, but some atrocious deed, the cause of the greatest revolution that ever happened in the greatest empire of the world, is very far different from all the French tragedies, and mounted, if I may use the expression, upon a buskin much higher and much nobler than the rest."

The rules of true tragedy are contained in these few words. The springs which set the grand passions of the soul in motion, if we except love, an engine so often employed, are, without doubt, politicks and ambition. Fanaticism, also, may cause very great revolutions; but I except this motive, which is always violent, always sanguinary, and which can only cool peoples zeal for religion, the first, the most sacred, and the most respectable of the duties of men.

These, then, are the springs which must be employed in tragedy, if one wishes to deviate from the beaten track, and to produce grand effects. What can be more insipid, and less marked with novelty, than those pieces in which love is the sole passion of all the heroes, and which, for the greater part, whatever the scene of action may be, contain nothing but a marriage either concerted, crossed, or dissolved? Our great modern

geniuses have already said every thing that can be written on that subject. We must, therefore, deviate from their manner, if we wish to acquire reputation, or to be handed down to posterity; if we copy them, in a servile manner, we expose ourselves to a comparison which must always be disadvantageous to us.

Who has treated of love with more spirit and sensibility than Racine? Who has painted it with more force and grandeur than Corneille? And who has given it more fury and violence than Crebillon? If it be true that delicacy, impetuosity, and jealousy, are the characteristics of love, and if it be true that vengeance or generosity are its effects, who knew better than these three writers to represent it under those different points of view, and to describe its different affections?

It must indeed be allowed, as is the common opinion, that this passion is so general, and so varied, according to the different objects who are exposed to it, that it seems to be inexhaustible, and that it exhibits a multitude of pictures, each of which has its peculiar shades, tints and coloring; but the principal traits in those pictures will always be the same, and the design will be monotonous; in a word, it will be the same subject, delineated by twenty painters: there will be nothing peculiar to each, but the details; the masses will be common to all.

It may, however, be objected, that if we banish love from our tragedies,

we shall never see women in them, or they will only perform very trifling parts. What will become of us, if we banish from our pleasures that amiable sex, who are formed to inspire tenderness, move and captivate us, and who make us share in the sentiments of those heroes who sacrifice their lives for them, or detest the cruelty of those tyrants who oppress them? Why banish women from our dramatic works? Why should we expel love entirely? This, indeed, is not to be wished; let it only be subordinate to the principal interest, and the end I have in view will be answered. If we open the books of every age, and search the annals of empires and republics, we shall there find that women have always been the most considerable agents. More ambitious and more violent, but less prudent than the men, they have almost always occasioned the greatest revolutions. Others, without causing the fall of their kingdoms, have governed them with the greatest wisdom; and some have exercised acts of justice or severity, which might afford matter for a thousand tragedies. The celebrated Elizabeth, if we except her amours with the Earl of Essex, and some others, whose merit was not equal to that of this queen, have given proofs of the most heroic courage, and of the most intrepid firmness. Has not Russia had some valorous empresses; and at Rome, where the women were subordinate to their husbands, did they not distinguish themselves by instances of courage, patriotism and greatness of soul? It is these heroines that ought to be produced upon the stage: we should then have bold characters, well delineated.

The death of Cæsar, and that of Philoctetes, are the only two modern tragedies in which there are no women. They are, however, no less interesting; the first, above all, is so; but this is not to be given as a model. It would be too difficult, and perhaps it might become tiresome.

It remains now to speak of the subjects which ought to be chosen;

for the greater number of those exhibited on the stage for some years past are only subjects of invention, or *amplification*. It cannot be denied, that a subject of invention, if it be interesting, and well treated, must afford pleasure; but many qualities must be united in it. Historical events, when treated in a languid manner, speak at least to our remembrance, whereas fabulous subjects speak only to the imagination: the first is the real figure, the second is only the mask.

We may hear authors every day complain of a scarcity of subjects, but let them only open the fourth book of the *Eneid*. They will there find a great abundance, which, by the help of a few alterations, necessary for preserving the exactness of theatrical rules, would open a field for the most sublime and emphatical expressions. If we turn over the history of the sovereigns of the universe, what incidents and plots; what murders, occasioned by love, glory, or ambition? The lives of the eastern emperors seem to be a copious source, from which many interesting subjects might be drawn; and the empire of the Turks might likewise supply a great many. Have we not also the Kins of Tartary, the emperors of China, Japan, Pegu, Calicut, &c? all inexhaustible treasures, if authors would give themselves the trouble of making a choice.

It is true that our dramatic authors would be obliged to make considerable researches, both with respect to customs, and the antient geography of the places in which their scenes happened; but in that they would only imitate the great authors of the *Cid*, *Electra*, *Phædra*, *Rhadamistus*, and *Mahomet*. As these authors were minute in their details, they considered no trouble too great to be exact. A mountain, a river, or even a small stream, would have stopped them, had they not been able to discover their names. Tragedy ought to paint; it ought to be a faithful representation of customs, climates, laws, and dresses, and on that account every care should be employed to be exact.



## REVIEW OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

## FOREIGN.

MEMOIRS HISTORIQUES ET AUTHENTIQUES SUR LA BASTILLE, &c. *Historical and authentic Memoirs respecting the Bastille; containing a particular account of the imprisonment of upwards of three hundred persons, with notes, letters, reports and trials found in that fortress, arranged in a chronological order, from the year 1475 to the present period, with a plate, representing the Bastille at the time it was taken.* Vol. I and II. Paris 1789.

“THOSE walls, reared by vengeance and tyranny, are fallen. Those threatening towers, which contained the victims of kingly pride, and the dreadful secrets of despotism, have disappeared. But the impure blood of a few traitors, sacrificed on their ruins, cannot appease the manes of those wretched mortals, who have languished or died in this horrid Tartarus. History, therefore, in their name, must avenge justice and the laws shamefully violated, and humanity outrageously offended. Weak and fanatical kings, ye Sardanapali of France, emerge a moment from the abyss of death, to suffer the greatest of punishments, that of hearing your crimes proclaimed throughout the whole earth! And ye, ye nations of the earth, read these annals of wickedness, this dreadful nomenclature of crimes committed amongst a people the most humane and the most generous, by the most iniquitous and cruel of governments. Read, and ye will shudder with indignation, ye will fully enjoy the humiliation of tyrants.”

Such is the commencement of the preliminary discourse to these memoirs, and such is the picture of the atrocious cruelties related in them. Charles V. caused the Bastille to be

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built, to defend, or rather to restrain the inhabitants of the city of Paris; but the construction of the dungeons in this prison, the care taken to render them pestilential by the privation of air and light, the formidable apparatus of a jail, guarded by inauspicious eyes, and merciless vigilance, the terror inspired of receiving poison in ones food, the baskets that turned upon wheels covered with plates of steel, and the perfidious and bitter smiles of examining magistrates, all announce the infernal project of making the Bastille the perpetual abode of vengeance and tyranny. It was at first indeed destined only for state criminals; but was it not sufficient to forge state crimes, in order to increase the number of criminals? To complain of an injustice consequently became a state crime. To cry out against a base and corrupted government, to lament the oppression of the people, or the worthless conduct, incest, or drunkenness of mistresses and favorites; to speak of natural liberty, and liberty of conscience, to doubt of the infallibility of ministers, or of their probity, to have unfulfilled honor, and a spotless character, to have a pretty wife, who happened to please a minister, or a lieutenant of the police, to displease a clerk in any of the public offices, or a chamber maid at court, all became crimes of state, and were all condemned, in the succession of time, to the Bastille.

The Bastille at first contained only those who had conspired against the state. Louis de Luxembourg, constable of France under Louis XI. being at St. Quintin, obtained a passport from Charles VII. the last duke of Burgundy, to go to Mons, in Hainault, to Emeric, high-bailiff and governor of that place, who was his best friend, but the latter had private orders from Charles to watch so closely that the constable could not escape from Mons.

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He afterwards delivered him to the bastard of Bourbon, admiral of France, and de Bloffet, bailiff of Alençon, and captain of Caen, who conducted him to the Bastille. He was tried by a commission, of which the first president of the parliament of Paris was chancellor, and De Bloffet always remained shut up with him till the moment of his execution.

James d'Armagnac, put into the Bastille on the 4th of August, 1476, was one of the chiefs of the war *du bien public*, and by a commission was condemned to lose his head. "The king was desirous that his children should assist at the execution, and he ordered that they should be placed on the scaffold, that their father's blood might fall on them, which indeed happened, by the cruel care taken for this purpose when he was beheaded." The sentence is remarkable; it does not mention the crimes of which this unfortunate man was convicted. The Bastille appeared then to be too comfortable a prison; the prisoners were shut up in cages. *These cages were six feet wide, eight long, and a foot higher than the stature of an ordinary man.*

After this comes the trial of Biron, condemned under Henry IV. to be beheaded for high treason. France was then agitated by continual factions, and the good Henry, who remembered the services which Biron had done him, and who was always happy to forgive, did every thing in his power to induce him to acknowledge his crime, but the haughtiness of the criminal, and his impenitence, obliged the king to make an example of him. Being tried, sentence was passed by the parliament of Paris, and he was executed in the interior court of the Bastille. *The conspiracy of Biron was detected by one named Lassin, a man whom he entrusted with his secrets.* In these memoirs we find several observations respecting Louis XIII. one of them, which is very curious, is as follows. "Louis XIII. spent the years of his minority in beating the

drum, sounding the horn, making little jets d'eau with pipes formed of quills, and in catching sparrows, and magpies. What an education for a youth destined to rule a great nation! He began his reign by the assassination of the Marshal d'Ancre, and by the banishment of the Queen Mother." The end, it is well known, was worthy of this beginning; yet he has been styled by men of letters *Louis the Just*.

Under Louis XIV. despotism attacked the middle classes of people, as well as the highest. The name of Fouquet is celebrated. "Being shut up," remarks the editor, "in the castle of d'Angers, he fell sick, and having requested a confessor, his demand was refused. A commission was appointed, and he was transported to the castle of Vincennes; he protested before that he enjoyed the privilege of a veteran of parliament. Colbert wished that he might be declared guilty, and passed a decree, that no attention should be paid to his protestations." His papers, the only means he had of justifying himself, were taken away, and even paper and ink were refused him to write to the king. Puffort, afterwards Colbert's son in law, and one of the authors of the detestable code of the French criminal laws, was one of the commissioners, and gave it as his opinion, that he should be put to death; but the greater part were for perpetual banishment, which the king changed into perpetual imprisonment. All his family were exiled, but his physician and his valet de chambre were confined, lest, being at liberty, they might convey intelligence from him to his relations and friends."

These memoirs tell us the names of several of his mistresses, by transcribing their letters, which were left among his papers. The most curious is that of Madame Scarron, afterwards the wife and widow of Louis XIV. it is as follows.

I do not know you well enough to love you; and if I did know you, perhaps, I should love you less. I have always shunned vice, and I have a natural aversion to wickedness, but I confess to you, that I hate poverty more. I acknowledge the receipt of your ten thousand crowns; if you will bring ten thousand more, in the course of two days, I will see what I can do.

*Letter written by a Lady unknown.*

Hitherto I have been so confident of my own strength, that I would have defied the whole world, but I confess, that the last conversation I had with you has charmed me. In your discourse I found a thousand sweets which I did not expect. In a word, if I ever see you again, I do not know what may be the event.

*Letter from Madame Duplessi Belliere.*

I know neither what I am saying, nor what I am doing, when I oppose your wishes. I cannot shake off my anger, when I think that Mademoiselle de la Valiere gives herself consequential airs with me. To engage her good will I have offered incense to her beauty, which is, however, not great; and having afterwards informed her, that you would take care that she should never be in want of any thing, and that you had twenty thousand pistoles for her, she fell into a passion with me, saying that twenty five thousand were not capable of inducing her to take a false step, and she pronounced this with so much haughtiness, that, though I omitted nothing to soften her before I left her, I am afraid she will speak to the king; so that it will be necessary to be before hand with her. Do you not think it would be proper, in order to anticipate her, to say that she asked money from you, and that you refused it? This will cause the queen mother to suspect her. That fat woman Brancas and de Gravé will give you a good account of her. When the one leaves her the other takes her up. In short, I make no difference between your interests and my own safety. Politics would have it that I should see the eagle; he appeared to me to be a very good man, but much the dupe of our affairs. I have given him food for three months, and made him swallow it in the sweetest manner in the world. Indeed one is very happy to be concerned in the affairs of a man like you; your merit removes all difficulties, and if heaven render you justice, we shall one day see you in a better situation.

*Letter of Mademoiselle de Manneville to Mr. Fouquet.*

I share in the sorrow which you say you felt for going to Bretagne, without having

had it in our power to see one another in private; but I am easily comforted when I reflect, that such visits might hurt your health; and I am even afraid, that having been in too violent a passion the last time I had a glimpse of you, it may increase your disorder.

*Letter of Madam Fouquet, wife to the Superintendent's brother.*

Do not oblige me, I beg of you, to apply that vile word c—k—d, to the husband whom you have given me. It is enough for me, that you have overcome my scruples, to satisfy myself; I also turn things another way; for I imagine that he is nothing to me, as I never loved him, so that I promise to act henceforth with you as I would with a cousin in the sixth degree; but I conjure you to humour him a little; he is jealous, and a c—k—d, like a thousand others.

*Letter of Madam de Valentinois.*

I do not know what pretence more I shall employ to see you. I have already passed twice to day before your windows. Appoint a rendezvous. I could destroy all the world to get thither. I have spoken to Madam — in a proper manner, and you may, I think, rely on her. I have contrived an interview for the day after to-morrow, but I hope the case will be different from what it was to-day. She never appeared to me so amiable, and assuredly my affairs will go on very badly.

*Letter of the Abbe de Belebat.*

I have to-day accomplished your business. I know of a handsome, pretty girl, from a good place, and I hope that you may procure her for three hundred pistoles.

After this, one is not astonished that Fouquet should have said that *he had a tariff of the honour of all the ladies, and of the probity of all the men.* Fouquet, however, constantly maintained that these letters were forged by his enemies.

The Chevalier de Rohan was arrested in the chapel of Versailles. The Sieur Hautreaumont, a gentleman of Normandy, who knew the secret of the conspiracy, hid himself, but he was discovered at Rouen, and mortally wounded, through the imprudence of those who attempted to

seize him. He expired without discovering any thing. "Those who were attached to the Chevalier de Rohan went every night round the Bastille, calling out, with a speaking trumpet, *Hautreaumont is dead, and has disclosed nothing*, and this they repeated every moment till morning. The Chevalier, however, did not hear them. Mr. De Bezons, one of his judges, got his secret from him, under a promise that the king would pardon him; but as the king had not authorized him to say so, he would not consent to what the judge had ventured to promise. He was condemned, by a sentence of the chamber royal, to be beheaded. "It appears from the trial, that the king dictated this sentence."

The affair of the poisons made a great noise in the age of Louis XIV. It was referred definitively to the chamber royal of the arsenal, by letters patent, bearing date April 7th, 1679. This chamber was a commission composed of counsellors of state, and masters of requests. The Duke of Luxembourg was one of the first persons accused; he was ordered, after his acquittal, to retire to one of his estates; but *Peter Bonnard, his attendant and accomplice, was condemned to make the amende honorable, and to be sent to the galleys.* La Voisin accused several persons, and among others the Duchesses of Bouillon and Vivonne, the Duke de Vendome, the Countesses of Soissons, du Roure, de Polignac, the Princess of Tingry, &c. A priest, named Guibourg, seventy one years of age, *was skilful in the art of making poisons.*

This Guibourg committed a thousand horrid actions, on the solicitation of one named *Le Roi*, governor of the pages, belonging to the lesser stables. He performed mass at different times on the bellies of several women. He was conducted blindfolded to the place where mass was to be celebrated, and he was conveyed back in the same manner to the

place from which he had been brought, according to agreement.

He was paid for these masses at a very dear rate;—for one celebrated in a deserted house at Saint-Denys, he received twenty pistoles.

After the consecration, he repeated the conjuration, which gave an account of the design for which these masses were said.

The words of the conjuration were as follows: *Ye spirits, whose names are written in this paper, I conjure you to accomplish the will and design of the person for whom this mass is celebrated.*

The women, over whose bellies he said mass, were not undressed; they had only their clothes turned over their heads, up to the neck.

Those who exclaim against the present age, and who prefer the preceding to it, would find it very difficult to persuade us, that female poisoners could actually acquire fortunes, and seduce persons of all ranks, without number; that men like Guibourg could find people, who wished to hear and to pay for their masses, and who believed in their conjurations. It was doubtless right to punish them; but why were their crimes and their punishment made secret? It was not known at that period, that the punishment of crimes being made public, keeps criminals at a distance, and checks those who are about to become wicked. The number, the importance of the accused, and the particulars of their trials, which are to be found in these memoirs, so troubled the head of Louis XIV. and of his council, that all those who possessed furnaces, or alembics, were suspected of poisoning, and shut up in the Bastille. The information even of a stranger was sufficient to make a Frenchman or a foreigner be arrested. At length, these frequent arrests were attended with that success which was required; they established the utmost mistrust, and every person who died was supposed to have been poisoned; and every man who had salts, colored powders, bottles closely corked, of which no use was made, was considered as a poisoner. Hence

Hence proceeded the calumnies which followed the regent, and which have not yet been entirely destroyed. The absurd secrecy observed with regard to the affair of the poisoners, made them be thought much more skilful than they really were.

It would be tedious to mention all the protestants thrown into the Bastille on account of their religion, and concerning whom these memoirs give us notes of more or less extent. Some were arrested because they wished to withdraw from persecution, and exercise their profession elsewhere; and others because they appeared to have changed only externally. One must be very foolish to imagine that violence has any power over the heart.

The first were punished that they might not carry away their money and their industry, and the latter, that they might not persuade the new converts to relax. Several, even in their dungeons, insulted the author of their misfortunes. One of them, Eliard de Coutances, shewed a courage and presence of mind almost inconceivable. He said one day, that he would declare the whole secret of his affair to one of his judges. The judge arrived. Eliard was some time silent, and then asked permission to repeat his prayers.

"Falling on his knees, with his hands joined, and addressing himself to God, he began with a loud voice to give vent to imprecations, and to utter horrid maledictions against the king—then rising up, he said, *behold what I shall do all the rest of my life.* The judge not being able to obtain any thing else, he was conducted back to his dungeon."

These memoirs do not inform us of the real name of *the man with the iron mask*, who has been the subject of so much conjecture, since Voltaire, Saint Foix, la Grange Chancel, and the Jesuit Griffet, mentioned his existence, and some particulars of his history.

He died suddenly, says the editor, in the Bastille, having been sick only a few hours. Every thing found in his apartment was burnt; as his whole bed, comprehending the mattresses, tables, chairs, and other utensils, which were reduced to ashes, and thrown into the necessary; the rest, such as silver-plate, and articles of copper, or tin, was melted.

This prisoner was confined in the third chamber of that tower of the Bastille, called *Bertardiere*; the plaster of the walls was all scraped off and whitened anew, from top to bottom; the doors and the windows were burned like the rest.

The editor thinks that this prisoner was the eldest brother of Louis XIV. Voltaire entertained the same opinion, but he never mentioned it, except to his intimate friends.

The second volume of these memoirs contains, among many other interesting articles, those of Voltaire, the Duke de Richelieu, and the famous affair of the *visa* under the Regency. Voltaire was twice put into the Bastille; the first time in 1717, for having wrote some verses against the regent and the duchess of Berry; among others a piece, entitled *Puero regnante*. He remained there nearly a year. Eight years after he was carried back again, on the 28th of March, 1726; because, insulted by Mr. De Rohan-Chabot, he did not believe that a great lord did much honor to a plebeian by mauling him well.

The following is the fragment of a letter which he wrote to the minister of the department of Paris on this subject: "I most humbly remonstrate that I have been assassinated by the brave Chevalier de Rohan, assisted by six ruffians, behind whom he was boldly posted. I have always, since that time, sought an opportunity of repairing not my own, but his honor, which was very difficult," &c.—This, undoubtedly, is from the pen of Voltaire.

To this article are joined twelve poetical pieces, the best of which are already known. We regret that we cannot transcribe a Latin epitaph on Cardinal Mazarine, which is not altogether in the lapidary style, but which is very ingenious and cutting.

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The Duke of Richelieu was three times put into the Bastille; first under the name of Fronfac, and again, and a third time, under that of Richelieu. The cause of his first imprisonment, in 1711, was his having enjoyed the good graces of a great princess. He had been caught in the fact by Mr. de Cavoye, who told Madam Maintenon. His father himself conducted him to the Bastille. The cause of his second imprisonment, in 1716, was his having divulged, at an opera ball, a nocturnal orgie, where Madam de Ma... had been the victim of all the guests, and even of the laquais. Mr. de Ma... sent him a challenge, and wounded him. To remove him from the pursuits of the parliament, who pretended to have a right of judging dukes and peers, he was put into the Bastille. His being confined there, the third time, in 1719, was on account of a great princess being desperately in love with him, though, at that time, he had seven or eight other mistresses, three of whom were of the first rank. Their correspondence still exists, and may be one day published. This princess, in her letters, testifies, in a very lively manner, how grieved she was to depart for Modena. In her journey from Paris to Lyons only, she wrote to the duke from twenty-six to thirty plaintive epistles.

On the 25th of August, 1786, the marshal came to review the Bastille, and he ascended the towers, though aged ninety years, five months, and twelve days.

The Sieur du Truche de la Chaux, one of the body guards, who, on the 5th of January, 1762, the anniversary of the assassination attempted by Damiens, formed a plan to break his sword at the door of the king's apartment, to throw himself on the floor, to cry out, *help, help, seize the murderer*, having first given himself a slight wound with a pen-knife, in order to attract the king's notice, and to obtain a pension, makes a conspicuous figure here. To have attempted to procure the monarch's protec-

tion, by pretending that assassins had come to attack him, must be attributed to the period when this singular affair happened. To comprehend it properly, one must know that Louis XV. trembled then every moment for his life. From this great terror one of his own guards made a wrong calculation. He was hanged by a sentence of the parliament, who wished thus to put his fidelity to the proof.

These memoirs will be found useful to those who are desirous of knowing history. By the style alone, it appears that they are authentic. Each piece is written differently, and in such a manner as one cannot write at present.

ELOGIO DI GESSNER, &c. *The Elogio of Gesner*. Pavia, printed by Joseph Bolzani, printer to the city and the university, 1789. 8vo.

IT will be sufficient to read the date and title of this work, to be convinced that no person could be the author of it but the *Abbè Bertola*, the most ardent admirer, and the most faithful friend, that the German Theocritus ever had in Italy. No one, indeed, but a friend, and one intimately acquainted with the person and writings of Gesner, could trace out to the life, and give animation to all the features, both of the man and the writer, as the author of this elege has done.

Gesner was born at Zurich in 1730. He received the first principles of education in his own country; but he was rather the pupil of nature than of the schools. In his *letter upon landscape painting*, which the best judges consider as the most profound work on that subject, he speaks himself with that openness, which so well becomes great men, of the passion he entertained from his infancy of making observations, with a view of appropriating to himself, by imitation, the most perfect of the works, both of nature and art.

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With such a happy disposition, strengthened by habitude, he was sent by his parents to Leipsic, Berlin, and Hamburgh, to gain a knowledge of commerce, to which, however, he could not subject himself; but he acquired, in those cities, a purer taste, and a considerable number of friends and admirers, among those with whom he had been acquainted.

When he returned to his own country, he quitted it no more; and his principal object was to cultivate his favorite studies in the bosom of his family, and to discharge all the duties of a tender husband, a good father, and an upright citizen.

The Abbé Bertola exhibits him under all these different aspects, and the pictures which he presents could not be more interesting. He does not enlarge much in analysing, or making an apology for his poetry and manner, referring, on this head, to what he has already said in several places of his excellent work, entitled, *A View of the Belles Lettres in Germany*.

With regard to his poetry, says he, I have shewn elsewhere, (in the work above-mentioned) that, next to the Italians, no one among the moderns has approached nearer than he to the divine simplicity of the ancients, and the definition of it is, what that of all pastoral poetry ought to be, that is to say, a species of composition, made to inspire a love for the pleasures of innocence, and to give lessons of the purest and mildest philosophy; that all his painting of the human heart breathes the most amiable philanthropy; that he describes happiness in the midst of the groves, under a thousand different aspects; that he exhibits, in his amours, the purest virtue; that the natural manner in which his personages express sentiments of honesty and beneficence is extremely engaging; that he shews, in a masterly manner, the grandeur, the delicacy, and the tenderness with which he displays the affections of a father, a husband, and a son; thus all the ties which nature has employed to form the first foundations of society, and the ordinary events of life are continually found among his characters, and re-appear under forms and colors, that instruct at the same time that they interest; and lastly, that he is the first who has given to pastoral poetry all the extent and perfection of which it is susceptible.

On this account our author is astonished, and with justice, that any person in Italy should have ventured to censure him with severity, accusing him, above all, of too great uniformity of character in his poetry.

It is truly a strange and disagreeable thing, observes he a little farther, that any one should have had this courage in Italy, where a taste for pastoral poetry, cherished and brought to perfection by the Arcadia, the Amynta, and the Pastor Fido, and a natural taste for rural beauties, animated and strengthened by a disposition so lively and affable, should rather unite in favor of this poet, idolized by the French, the English, and the Germans—in Italy, which he loved more than any stranger ever, perhaps will—in Italy, where the translations of his works touched his heart, more than those of any other nation. On this account he was accustomed to say, that he perceived himself in ours, but that he found only his shadow in all the rest. It is, however, still more strange and disagreeable, that these critics should be some of our most enlightened writers.

In examining more closely this pretended uniformity in his poetry, of which Gesner has been accused, he clearly proves that this charge is destitute of foundation, either because the species of poetry he has chosen is, by its nature, confined within the bounds of a certain apparent uniformity, or because the poet of Zurich knew to modify this intrinsic uniformity of the subject, with more art than Theocritus or Virgil, though he has written six times as much as they in the pastoral kind; and this will appear very natural, if we reflect that Gesner was acquainted with painting and engraving; and that, uniting these two arts, he could easily suggest beauties, which the poet, without being a painter, or the painter without being a poet, would never have found.

His imagery, continues he, especially that which he wrote when he had attained to the age of thirty, sufficiently prove that this knowledge was extremely useful to him; the effect of both is doubled by the harmony which the two arts give them. His painting often awakens that succession of ideas which Albano so much desired, and which he never perfectly obtained but  
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by the means of poetry. Several of his idylls present to the imagination those rapid effects of the *claro oscuro* of the painting, which Dante, by the extent of his genius acquired, in a degree superior to all the moderns, without being a painter. Some of the paintings and poems of Gesner, which produced so grand and enchanting delusions, are, with one another, like the union of two voices in perfect unison. An excellent connoisseur has already been charmed with the frequent reading of his description of conjugal happiness, and of an amiable spouse, with two pretty children—a description contained in his idyll, entitled, *A Morning in Autumn*; but when he went to see the painting in which the subject of the same idyll was represented, by the force of an illusion, of which he had never before entertained any idea, he really imagined that he heard the tender expressions of this happy spouse, and the inarticulate sounds of joy uttered by the charming young ones; he thought he saw their little hands stroking the visage of their father. By his knowledge of these two arts, Gesner acquired another engaging beauty in his poetry, respecting the expression of effects. The precision and propriety of words, their sound and arrangement is such, that they present, in an instant, the attitudes, and even the color proper for each passion, and they always make one comprehend more than is read. The finest strokes of the expression of effects are heightened by an almost imperceptible gradation, so that we feel all the force of them, without perceiving the art. This gradation could not be disposed and directed but by the hand of a painter, able to open such paths, where, by moving the heart, an impression is made on the mind while the imagination is delighted. This harmonical union enabled Gesner also to delineate in his poetry certain images more than human, to render them almost perceptible to the senses, and to insinuate into them the ethereal influence of the models of these images. We imagine that we see the rays which proceed from the forehead of his deities; we behold their winged ministers seated on clouds; we observe their motion, when he makes them descend, like the soft and gentle fall of the April showers; we distinguish the odor of those flowers with which they are crowned; and we behold them starting into life, their motions full of gracefulness

and vivacity, with their celestial looks, and their heavenly smiles.

Hitherto we have followed our author in the longest and most interesting part of his eloge. We wish that we could follow him in the other part also, which takes up more than two thirds of the work, and in which the Abbè Bertola gives an account of his interview at Zurich with the German Theocritus. We should gladly, did room permit us, relate all these particularities which rendered it so dear to his heart, and which render it still so instructive and delightful to his readers. It is there that the author traces out a striking portrait of Gesner, and gives us a view of his manner of thinking, and living; of the method and tenor of his studies; and, in short, where he displays, in natural colors, his modest, mild, and sensible soul—the real pupil of Nature, who so well knew how to observe, follow, and imitate her.

We must again repeat, that we should be glad to insert entire this interesting dramatic description of the interview which took place between these two friends, were it, in reality, as short as it appears to those who read it, on account of the pleasure with which they are enchanted, and which excludes every other thought. We recommend it, therefore, to such of our readers as understand Italian, to peruse the original, if they can procure it; they will there see with what art this learned and delicate panegyrist has, in this part, as well as in the rest of his eloge, made use of the same colors of the poet and painter as the Theocritus of Zurich, and employed, with success, the same justness of sentiment, and the same easiness of style, which are so eminently conspicuous in that celebrated man.

## BRITISH PUBLICATIONS.

THE WORKS OF SAMUEL JOHNSON, LL. D. Vol. XV. 8vo. Elliot and Kay, and Elliot, Edinburgh.

THE greatest, and by much the most valuable part of this volume, is the translation of *Lobo's Voyage to Abyssinia*. "That work," as the editor observes, "must to every lover of letters be interesting, if for no other reason, than that it was the first effort of an author, who, amidst inconvenience and distraction, in sickness and in sorrow, rose, by the innate vigor of his mind, to the highest pitch of literary eminence." But the voyage to Abyssinia is interesting in itself, independent of the fame of its great translator; for it contains, perhaps, the fullest and most authentic account that is yet before the public, of a country which attracted the attention of some of the most renowned heroes and philosophers of antiquity.

Father Lobo, in company with some other Jesuits from Portugal, went, in 1625, with all the zeal of a missionary, and all the bigotry of his order, to propagate the doctrines of the Romish church among the Abyssins; but neither his zeal, nor his bigotry, could prevent him from sometimes withdrawing his attention from the *faith*, to employ it upon objects more worthy of a man of learning—upon the face of the country, and the customs of the people. That he was no romantic traveller, studious to amuse at the expence of truth, will be strongly impressed upon the mind of every man who peruses his book; for, as Johnson observes, "he appears, by "his modest and unaffected narration, to have described things as he "saw them; to have copied nature "from the life; and to have consulted his senses, not his imagination. He meets with no basilisks "that destroy with their eyes; his "crocodiles devour their prey without tears; and his cataracts fall "from the rock without deafening "Vol. IV.

"the neighbouring inhabitants." He describes, indeed, many animals unknown in Europe, and some, of which even the existence has been doubted; but his descriptions are not like those which are usually given by men who are conscious of writing falsehood; he does not *labor* to enforce conviction, but writes with the easy indifference of a man, who, sensible that he is relating nothing but the truth, betrays no suspicion that his veracity will be questioned.

Whoever looks into this volume, with the hope of finding magnificent accounts of public buildings, or of ruins which proclaim the taste and grandeur of former ages, will be disappointed; for it seems to be doubtful, whether such buildings were ever known to the Abyssins. But he who reads, with a view to increase his stock of natural history, or to enlarge his knowledge of human nature, by tracing the customs and manners of a nation, which, though but half civilized, yet boasts an antiquity, in comparison with which the oldest state in Europe is but of yesterday, will read with pleasure, and perhaps with improvement.

We know that some of the greatest men of antiquity, such as *Alexander* and *Cesar*, have passionately wished to discover the source of the *Nile*, and to be able to account for its annual inundations. As a specimen of what our readers may expect in the *Voyage to Abyssinia*, we shall lay before them our author's reflections on the overflows of that celebrated river, not because we think those reflections likely to communicate any new information, but because they display a spirit of philosophy not very common to missionaries of the last century.

"The ignorance," says Lobo, "which we have hitherto been in "of the original of the Nile, hath "given many authors an opportunity "of presenting us very gravely with "their various systems and conjectures

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"tures about the nature of its waters,  
 "and the reason of its overflows."—  
 "Some of these theorists have been  
 "pleased to declare it as their favorite  
 "notion, that this inundation is caus-  
 "ed by high winds, which stop the  
 "current, and so force the water to  
 "rise above its banks, and spread over  
 "all Egypt. Others pretend a subter-  
 "raneous communication between the  
 "ocean and the Nile, and that the  
 "sea, being violently agitated, swells  
 "the river. Many have imagined  
 "themselves blessed with the disco-  
 "very, when they have told us, that  
 "this mighty flood proceeds from the  
 "melting of snow on the mountains  
 "of Ethiopia, without reflecting, that  
 "this opinion is contrary to the re-  
 "ceived notions of all the ancients,  
 "from whom they have the informa-  
 "tion upon which their hypothesis is  
 "built, and who believed that the  
 "heat was so excessive between the  
 "tropics, that no inhabitant could  
 "live there. So much snow and so  
 "great heat are never met with in the  
 "same region. And, indeed, I ne-  
 "ver saw snow in Abyssinia, except  
 "on Mount Semen, in the kingdom of  
 "Tigra, very remote from the Nile;  
 "and on Namera, which is, indeed,  
 "not far distant, but where there ne-  
 "ver falls snow sufficient to wet the  
 "foot of the mountain when it is  
 "melted.

"To the immense labors and fa-  
 "tigues of the Portuguese mankind is  
 "indebted for the knowledge of the  
 "real cause of these inundations, so  
 "great and so regular. Their obser-  
 "vations inform us, that Abyssinia,  
 "where the Nile rises, and waters  
 "vast tracts of land, is full of moun-  
 "tains; and in its natural situation  
 "much higher than Egypt; that all  
 "the winter, from June to Septem-  
 "ber, no day is without rain; that  
 "the Nile receives, in its course, all  
 "the rivers, brooks, and torrents  
 "which fall from those mountains;  
 "and that these necessarily swell it  
 "above the banks, and fill the plains  
 "of Egypt with the inundation.  
 "This comes regularly about the

"month of July, or three weeks after  
 "the beginning of the rainy season in  
 "Ethiopia."

Father Lobo remained only nine  
 years in Abyssinia; but the history of  
 that remote and unfrequented country,  
 together with the fate of the mission,  
 is continued down to the beginning  
 of the present century; and there are  
 added by *M. le Grand*, the French  
 translator, fifteen dissertations on va-  
 rious subjects, relating to the *manners*,  
*customs*, and *religion* of the Abyssins,  
 and to the natural history of the  
 country. The other tracts in this vo-  
 lume, besides a translation of the  
 well-known *table of Cebes*, are re-  
 views of books, dedications, two let-  
 ters, and some beautiful Latin verses  
 addressed to Dr. Laurence. The edi-  
 tor concludes his general preface with  
 a hope, that, "by rescuing from ob-  
 livion the various tracts, of which  
 "the volume is composed, he affords  
 "his contemporaries an opportunity  
 "of acquiring both harmless amuse-  
 "ment and useful information; and  
 "that he does no injury to the fame  
 "of Dr. Johnson"—a sentiment of  
 which the justness will never be con-  
 troverted, as there is nothing in  
 the volume unworthy of its author.

*An Address to the Public on the POLY-  
 GRAPHIC ART, or the Copying or  
 Multiplying Pictures in Oil Colours,  
 by a Chemical and Mechanical Pro-  
 cess, the Invention of Mr. Joseph  
 Booth, Portrait-Painter. Cadell,  
 1789. Price 6d.*

THIS pamphlet, written on an  
 ingenious and useful art, is composed  
 in a methodical, clear, convincing,  
 and elegant manner. The author  
 sets out with observing, that

Mechanical invention is one of the  
 great pillars that support the grandeur of  
 the British empire. Though there are  
 various manufactures and arts, in which  
 other nations, especially the Germans,  
 equal us, in respect of excellence;  
 with regard to expedition we are unri-  
 valled. Hence, notwithstanding the high  
 expence



expence of living, and the growing pressure of accumulated taxes, in articles of iron, steel, wool, cotton, turnery, earthen ware, and others, we are able to undersell nations where labour is twice as cheap as in England, the expence of living twice as low, and taxes more than twice as moderate.

But it was reserved to Mr. Booth, the author of this invention of multiplying pictures in oil-colours, with all the properties of the original paintings, whether in regard to outline, expression, size, variety of tints, or other circumstances, to apply with success, Mechanical invention, and particularly the power of Chymistry, to the diffusion, perpetuation, and, in some respects, even the improvement of the most generally pleasing and captivating of the liberal arts.

The great end and advantage of the Polygraphic Art, then, is, that by a mechanical and chymical process, without any injury whatever to the original painting, it produces such an exact copy, or likeness, as cannot, without difficulty and close attention, be distinguished from the archetype, at the distance from which every good picture ought to be viewed; while the price it can be delivered at to the public, is a mere trifle, commonly under, but never exceeding the tenth part of the value of the original. The experience of twelve years, renders it probable, and indeed almost certain, that these pictures, being done in oil colours, will, at least, equal their originals, in point of duration.

The writer of the pamphlet considers painting under three different views; first, as an ingenious art; secondly, as influencing morals; and thirdly, as an object of policy, and an article of commerce. On the first of these heads, he observes, among other particulars, that

As no copy can be made without an original, and as the Polygraphic Society will make a point of having a certain number of new subjects done for them every year, the interest of living Artists, and especially of the British Painters, instead of being injured by this mechanical and chymical progress, will be greatly promoted. And, as it will encrease the employment of eminent artists, so it will contribute, in no small degree, to the improvement of students, who, being accustomed to imitate the style and manner, will catch, in some degree, the genius of the greatest masters, and attain to distinguished excellence in grandeur and ele-

gance of contour, correctness of design, brilliant colouring, and well-effected mass of light and shade. On this head, let it be further observed, that the first introduction of young artists into practice and fame, is commonly that of portrait-painting, a branch of business which will still remain in their hands, and which the facility of multiplying copies of originals will infallibly tend to encrease. And, in general, at a time when we have many painters of established reputation, and others are rising into fame, an invention, which by a general diffusion of the most admired subjects creates a more general taste for the arts, cannot but have a favorable influence on the fortunes of artists; Mechanical Inventions of every kind, by reducing the price of commodities and manufactures, multiply customers, and extend their sale: so that those who at first are alarmed by their introduction, reap, in the issue, great advantage therefrom. The invention of cotton mills at first excited among the labouring manufacturers of cotton, yarn, and stuffs in Lancashire a general alarm, yet the extension of trade, by the lowering the price, and encreasing the demand, which those mills have occasioned, has rather augmented the number of hands employed in the manufactures of cotton, than diminished them. In like manner, may we not fairly suppose, that the multiplication of pictures, of capital and approved masters, may cherish and diffuse a general taste for painting, and thereby give employment and encouragement to the masters and adepts in that imitative art? At present fine paintings are to be purchased only by men in the possession of large fortunes. Reduce their price; they may be purchased, and will be purchased, by men of middling, and even of humble fortunes. By this means the use and love of paintings, and even the desire of having originals will be encreased; few houses will be without paintings of one sort or another; and the ingenious artist will find from a multiplication of pictures, such a diffusion of taste for painting, that an addition of patrons and consequent employ will of course take place. He will likewise be able to perform such designs, as will induce the proprietors of the Polygraphic Art to treat with him for the copy-right of the original, in the same manner that book-sellers treat with authors.

Before the invention of printing, books were so dear that they were within the compass only of Lords and Princes, or men in general of Princely fortunes. The press has put books in the hands of all ranks of men; and so, it may be reasonably presumed, this invention will adorn the  
halls

halls and other apartments of all ranks and orders of the people. And as the art of printing has multiplied Authors, so that of Polygraphy will, in all probability, encrease the number of painters.

The author of the pamphlet goes on to shew, that as all the arts and sciences are harmoniously connected, and mutually influence and support each other, the general diffusion of a taste for painting will be accompanied with a general diffusion of a taste for engraving, as well as sculpture, statuary, and every kindred art.—Having illustrated the happy influence of painting, as well as the other liberal arts, on morals, he considers it as an article of commerce.

It is well known, he says, that very considerable sums of money are annually carried out of this kingdom, for the purchase of foreign paintings, both copies and originals, and that in this traffic many impositions have been made, and frauds committed. The invention of Polygraphy evidently tends to remedy these disadvantages and abuses, while, at the same time, it does not oppose itself to the honest industry and ingenuity of the collector and dealer in pictures, who has the same market as usual.

It is with pleasure that we take this opportunity of bearing witness to the excellence of that ingenious and useful art, which forms the subject of the pamphlet before us. Our curiosity being excited by what we had read and heard, we went to see the Polygraphic Exhibition, and found the likeness of the copies to the originals so striking and exact, that the former were not to be distinguished from the latter but by the most close and minute attention.

We have been informed that the proprietors of the Polygraphic Art, who are gentlemen of great respectability, and good fortune, have embarked a very large property on the maturation and improvement of this invention; and that they have rejected very considerable offers from the Continent, trusting that they shall find encouragement, where they wish to find it, in their own coun-

try.—We therefore heartily wish them all the success, to which their liberal and public spirit justly entitles them.

THE HISTORY AND ANTIQUITIES OF THE TOWN AND COUNTY OF THE TOWN OF NEWCASTLE UPON TYNE, *including an Account of the Coal Trade of that Place, and embellished with engraved Views of the publick Buildings, &c.* By John Brand, M. A. Fellow and Secretary of the Society of Antiquaries, London. 2 vol. Folio, White and Son, 1789.

THE author of this laborious work has here collected with great care and assiduity whatever tended to illustrate the history and antiquities of Newcastle, a place worthy the attention of the antiquary and historian, as being one of the principal frontier towns during the wars between Scotland and England, and since celebrated by its extensive coal trade.

As we think the article on coals, and the coal trade, one of the most important, we shall give a few extracts from it.

Some writers derive the name of coal from an Hebrew word of similar sound and signification; but there are other etymologists who deduce it from the Greek, or the Latin. Of coal, that black, sulphureous, inflammatory matter dug out of the earth, and at present the common fuel of the most of Europe, as well as of other parts of the globe, considered as a genus, there are various species, the chief of which, according to Dr. Black, are common coal, fat, or blacksmith's coal, and the Kilkenny coal.

Coal, of whatever kind, according to the hypothesis of the above-mentioned ingenious professor of chemistry, and many other respectable writers and philosophers, as well of our own as of foreign nations, is of vegetable origin, all the strata of which are either great collections

lections of trees compacted together, or large forests, thrown down by decay of time, and afterwards buried by some more violent changes, to which the globe is liable, or other inflammable substances charred, perhaps, by subterranean fires, and incorporated with sulphur and bitumen.

We find express mention of coals, as used for fuel by artificers, about two thousand years ago; in the writings of Theophrastus, the scholar of Aristotle, who, in his book upon stones, gives the subsequent very particular description of them. "Those fossil substances, that are called coals, and are broken for use, are earthy; they kindle, however, and burn like wood coals. These are found in Liguria, where there is also amber, and in Elis, in the way to Olympias over the mountains; they are used by the smiths." Some writers have asserted, that coal was not known to the ancient Britons, but others have adduced proofs to the contrary, which seem to carry little less along with them than conviction. The Britons had a primitive name for this fossil; and besides this, a flint axe, an instrument, says Pennant, of the Aborigines of our island, was discovered stuck in certain veins of coal exposed to day in Crag-y-Parc, in Monmouthshire, and in such a situation as to render it very accessible to the unexperienced natives, who in early times were incapable of pursuing the veins to any great depths. There are no beds of coal in Italy, yet the strongest argument in favor of their opinion, who think that the Romans, while they were here, were ignorant of it, is, that there is no name for it in their language; the genuine and determinate sense of *carbo* being charcoal. Cæsar is silent concerning it in his description of our island.

It seems, however, to have been proved beyond a doubt, that, although it escaped the notice of that great people at first, it was afterwards in actual use amongst them.

The Romans, says the learned Whitaker, appear actually using coal in Britain. In the West Riding of Yorkshire, and neighbourhood of North Brierly, are many beds of cinders heaped up in the fields, in one of which a number of Roman coins was found some years ago.

Horsley, the learned author of the *Britannia Romana*, speaking in that work of the inscriptions found at Benwell, a village near Newcastle upon Tyne, and the Condercum of that people, remarks, "that there was a colliery, not far from that place, which is judged by those who are best skilled in such affairs to have been wrought by the Romans."

Whitaker, in his *History of Manchester*, mentions a grant of some lands made by the Abbey of Peterborough, dated A. D. 852, which proves, as it should seem, that this fuel was known and in use amongst us while the Saxons were masters of Britain. By this grant, certain boons and payments in kind were reserved to the monastery as one's nights entertainment, ten vessels of Welch, and two of common ale, sixty cart loads of wood, and twelve of fossil, or pit coal.

No mention of this fossil occurs under the Danish usurpation, and for a few reigns after the Norman conquest, the same silence prevails.

December 1st, 1239, King Henry the Third is said to have granted a charter to the townsmen of Newcastle upon Tyne, for liberty to dig coals in the vicinity of that place.

The strongest and the most unequivocal proof, that this species of fuel was in use amongst us during the reign of King Henry the Third, is to be found in an inquisition preserved among the additions to Matthew Paris' *History*, of the date of 1245.

In the year 1281, there had been so rapid an increase of the coal trade at Newcastle, that had not the town been granted before by King John,

John, at a fee-farm of an hundred pounds per annum, payable to the crown, that sum would probably have at least been doubled to the burgesses.

The first mention of coal that occurs in any charter in Scotland is found in a grant executed in 1291, in favor of the abbot and convent of Dumfermline, and the privilege of digging coal in the lands of Pittencrieff, in the county of Fife.

The use of sea coal was prohibited in London, in the year 1306, by proclamation. Brewers, dyers, and other artificers, who had occasion for great fires, had found their account in substituting our fossil for dry wood and charcoal; but so general was the prejudice against it, at the same time that the nobles and commons, assembled in parliament, complained against the use thereof, as a public nuisance, which was thought to corrupt the air with its stink and smoke.

A regard to private interest caused the first royal proclamation concerning it to be little noticed; on a second complaint, the king issued a commission of Oyer and Terminer, with strict orders to punish the delinquents by fines, and the demolishing of their furnaces and kilns. It were superfluous to observe here how very differently succeeding parliaments have thought on this subject. A few years afterwards sea coals appear to have been used in the royal palace in London. A. D. 1325. A vessel, the property of one Thomas Rente, of Pontoise, a town in the ancient dominions of the kings of England, in France, is mentioned as trading to Newcastle upon Tyne with corn, and returning with a freight of sea coals. In the year 1327, the measure of sea coals having become an object of consideration, we may infer, that this fuel had become an important article in the commerce of that time.

May the 10th, 1358, King Edward the Third confirmed to the burgesses of Newcastle upon Tyne

the possession of the Castle Moor and Castle Field, with liberty to dig coals, &c. in the same; it having appeared that these places had, from time immemorial, belonged to the town.

In 1365 the king issued an order concerning the measure to be used by the venders of coals.

In the year 1379 a duty, of sixpence per ton every quarter of a year, was imposed upon ships coming from Newcastle upon Tyne with coals. It appears by the rolls of Whitby Abbey, in Yorkshire, for the years 1394, 1395, and 1396, that coals brought thither by shipping from Newcastle, Shields, and Sunderland, were sold to that house at the rate of three shillings and fourpence per chaldron.

There is preserved in the archives of the corporation of Newcastle upon Tyne, an original receipt, dated the 4th of March, 1404, from the prior of St. John of Jerusalem, in England, to the mayor, aldermen, and community of that town, for the rent of mines of sea coal then working at Fenham, a village in the vicinity of that place, then the property of that once famous order of religious, who date the above discharge from their house in Clerkenwell, London.

The importance of the Newcastle coal trade at so early a period as 1421, will appear by an act made in consequence of a petition of the commons presented to parliament, May the 2d, that year; in which it is directed, that whereas there is a custom payable to the king of two-pence per chaldron on all coals sold to persons not franchised in the port of Newcastle; and whereas the keels which carry the coals from the land to the ships in that port, ought to be of the just portage of twenty chaldron, according to which burden the custom aforesaid is paid; yet many now making their keels to hold twenty-two or twenty-three chaldrons, the king is thereby defrauded of his due: wherefore it is now enacted, that all keels be measured

sured by Commissioners to be appointed by the King, and to be marked of what portage they be, under pain of forfeiting all the said keels which shall be found not marked.

In consequence of the above, September 14th that year, William Glym, Clerk, then Vicar of Newcastle, the Mayor of that town, and the King's customers there, with John Strother and William Bedford, were appointed by the King to be Commissioners during his royal pleasure for measuring and marking keels in the port of Newcastle aforesaid. Aeneas Sylvius, who afterwards assumed the purple, under the name of Pius II. visited this island about the middle of the fifteenth century. He relates that he saw in Scotland, poor people in rags begging at the churches, and receiving for alms pieces of stone, with which they went away contented. This species of stone, says he, whether with sulphur, or whatever inflammable substance it may be impregnated, they burn in place of wood, of which their country is destitute.

In the household book of the fifth Earl of Northumberland, of the date of 1512, a record of a singular curiosity equally throwing light on our ancient manners, and reflecting lustre on the great family whose extensive plan of domestic economy it so minutely displays, mention occurs of this fuel, which it seems they had not yet learnt to use by itself, for the subsequent extraordinary reason; "because," observes this authority, "colys will not byrne withowte wodd."

The best kind of coals appear to have been purchased at this time for five shillings per chaldron, and those of an inferior sort for four shillings and two pence.

In the year 1536, coals were sold at Newcastle upon Tyne, for two shillings and sixpence the chaldron; and at London, for about four shillings the chaldron.

In the year 1545, orders were sent from the King to the Mayor of Newcastle, Robert Brandling and Henry

Anderson, to forward with all possible dispatch, three thousand chaldron of coals to Bullein, in France.

Bishop Fleetwood tells us, in his *Chronicon Pretiosum*, that in the year 1550, a load of coals sold for five shillings.

In the journals of the House of Commons, February 1st, 1563, mention occurs of a bill to restrain the carriage of Newcastle coals over sea.

June 4th, 1563, an act passed in Scotland to prevent the exportation of coal, which had caused a great dearth of fuel in that country.

The subsequent extracts from Harison's Description of England, prefixed to Hollingshead's Chronicle, edited in the year 1577, contain some very curious and interesting notices concerning the coal trade. "Of cole mines we have such plenty in the north and western parts of our island, as may suffice for all the realme of Englande. And soe must they doe hereafter indeede if woode be not better cherished than it is at present; and to say the truth, notwithstanding that very many of them are carryed into other countreyes of the maine, yet theyr greatest trade beginneth to grow from the forge into the kitchen and halle, as may appeare already in most cities and townes that lye about the coast, where they have little other fewell excepte it be turfe and hassocke. I marvayle not a little that there is no trade of these in Suffex and Southamptonshire, for want whereof the smiths doe work their yron with charre-cole."

"I thinke that farre carriage be the only cause, which is but a slender excuse to inforce us to carye them unto the mayne from hence."

This writer farther says, "I might here take occasion to speak of the great sales yerely made of wood, whereby infinite deale hath been destroyed within these few yeres; but I give over to deale in this behalf; howbeit, this I dare affirm, that if woodes doe goe so fast to decay in the next hundred yeare of grace, as they have have done, and are like to doe



doe in this, (sometymes for increase of prodigallitie and pompe, for I have knowne a gentleman that hath borne three-score at once, in one pair of galigascos, to shew his strength and bravery) it is to be feared that brome, turfe, gal, heth, brakes, whinnes, ling, dies, hassocks, flaggs, straw, sedge, reede, rush, and sea cole, will be good marchandize even in the city of London, whereunto some of them already have gotten readie passage, and taken up their innes in the greatest marchant's parlors."

This writer then goes on to contrast the manners of former times with those of his own. "Now we have many chimneys, and yet our tenderlings complaine of rewmes, catarres and poses; then had we none but reredosses, and our heades did never ake. For as the smoke in those days was supposed to be a sufficient hardening for the timber of the house, so was it reputed a far-better medicine to keep the good man and his family from the quacke or pose, wherewith as then very few were acquainted."

He then proceeds, "There are old men yet dwelling in the village where I remain, which have noted the multitude of chimneys lately erected; whereas in their young dayes there were not above two or three, if soe many, in most uplandish townes of the realme, (the religious houses and manour places of their lordes alwayes excepted, and peradventure some great personages;) but each one made his fire against a reredosse in the halle, where he dined and dressed his meate."—"When our houses," continues he, "were buylded of willowe, then we had oken men, but nowe that our houses are come to be made of oke, our men are not only become willowe, but a great many altogether of straw, which is a fore alteration."

In the latter end of the reign of Queen Elizabeth, the duty of the town of Newcastle upon Tyne on coals, at four-pence per chaldron, appears to

have brought in 10,000*l.* per annum to that corporation.

In the year 1615, there appear to have been employed in the coal trade of Newcastle, four hundred sail of ships, one half of which supplied London, as the other did the rest of England with that fuel. The French are represented at this time as trading to Newcastle for coal, in fleets of fifty sail at once, serving the ports of Picardy, Normandy, Bretagne, &c. as far as Rochel and Bourdeaux, while the ships of Bremen, Embden, Holland and Zealand, were supplying the inhabitants of Flanders with that commodity.

By this time the use of sea coal had become general, occasioned, as is asserted, by a great scarcity of wood, which of late years they had neglected to plant throughout the whole kingdom.

In the year 1633, coals appear to have been sold at Newcastle for nine shillings per chaldron.

June 8, 1643, the Commons made an order to restrain the price of coals to twenty shillings, or not above twenty-three shillings the chaldron.

December 16, 1667, the parliament made an order that the price of coals till the 25th of March following should not exceed thirty shillings per chaldron.

December 18, 1677, the king granted to his natural son, Charles, Duke of Richmond and Lenox, and failing him and his heirs, to Louise, Duchess of Portsmouth, and the heirs of her body, the reversion of twelve pence per chaldron on coals; the said twelve pence per chaldron, the rent of 1836*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.* as also the rent of 612*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.* yet subject to an annuity of five hundred pounds to Sir Thomas Clarges, his heirs and assigns, at a yearly reserved rent of 11*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*

In 1699, one thousand four hundred ships are said to have been employed in the coal trade, exporting yearly from Newcastle two hundred thousand chaldron of coals, Newcastle measure, in time of peace.

POETRY.

## P O E T R Y.

## C O R Y D O N.

## A PASTORAL.

*Suave tuum nobis divina volucris.*

AS lately he fought the dark grove,  
Where silence and solitude reign,  
Thus Corydon, tortur'd with love,  
Was mournfully heard to complain.

"Thou, Philomel, who with thy strains  
Can'st calm the rough tempest of care,  
While the curfew calls homeward the  
swains,  
Sweetly warbl'st a sorrowful air.

"Now hush'd is the wind on the hill,  
The herds in the plain are at rest,  
The birds in the forest are still,  
But sorrow keeps wakeful my breast.

"Ah! why thou sweet songstress of night!  
Ah, why dost thou plaintively mourn?  
Thy causes of sorrow are light,  
Thy pleasures shall quickly return.

"But care, like a cankering worm,  
Invisibly feeds on my breast;  
Nought is mine, but in silence to mourn,  
A stranger for ever to rest.

"For ah! my Maria has prov'd  
Inconstant and light as the wind;  
The nymph whom I tenderly lov'd,  
Has fled, to my passion unkind.

"Ah! who could have thought that a  
form  
So divine could have harbour'd un-  
truth;  
But, alas! she has left me forlorn,  
She is gone with a treach'rous youth.

"But, why do I mourn thus in vain,  
Thus pensively sigh to the wind?  
I cannot but choose to complain,  
For the nymph that I love is un-  
kind.

"Sweet chorister, ease with thy strains,  
This burden of woe that I bear;  
Tell echo to sing o'er the plains,  
That Corydon dies of despair.

"So haply the story may reach  
Maria's perfidious ear;  
And the treach'rous Paridel teach,  
Both her smiles and professions to fear.

"Ye nymphs, to the swains that ye love,  
Your vows never heedlessly make;  
Left light and inconstant ye prove,  
And those vows full as heedlessly  
break.

"Ye shepherds, advised by me,  
Of deceitfulness ever beware;  
Tho' lovely and beauteous she be,  
Yet remember that frail is the fair."

He ceas'd, and beholding the deep  
Of Avon's impassible wave;  
He fought by a desperate leap,  
A relief from his cares in the grave.

S. B.

## E L E G Y.

CHILL blows the wind—exhaling mists  
arise,  
And cast a veil o'er ev'ry prospect fair;  
They shroud the glories of the purple  
skies,  
And spread infection thro' the livid  
air.

But see the East it's portals wide dis-  
play,—  
Shot thro' with orient beams the gloom  
is fled;—  
See radiant Phœbus shine with crimson  
ray,  
And o'er the world his golden mantle  
spread.

So, to some Abbey's desolated cells,  
Pale Superstition with her train retires,  
Obsequious to Religion's pow'ful spells,  
And vanquish'd—howls amidst the  
mould'ring spires.

There sombre Discontent, with haggard  
eye,  
Wanders at midnight hour thro' cloisters  
damp;  
There Melancholy heaves a plaintive sigh,  
And chants late vespers o'er the paly  
lamp.

But mild Religion, from her throne sub-  
lime,  
Tells the wild waves of passion ne'er to  
roll;  
Bids man aspire to gain th' æthereal clime,  
And cheers with heav'nly flame the  
drooping soul.

What time mild Evening waves her banners grey,  
Oft have I rov'd with wand'ring steps,  
and flow,  
Thro' scenes, where Hope extends a glim-  
m'ring ray,  
And try'd to ease th' oppressive weight  
of woe.

In vain—Oblivion's pow'rful hand de-  
ny'd  
Her opiate balm to sooth my aching  
breast;  
But sad Remembrance, to Despair ally'd,  
Drove from my wakeful couch the  
curtain'd \* rest.

'Till bright Religion heard my plaintive  
strain,—  
She whisper'd comfort from her radiant  
state;  
Taught by her gentle voice, I smil'd at  
pain,  
And frown'd defiance on the storms of  
fate.

"Far from monastic ease—exert your  
pow'rs,  
"Go—close the wakeful eyes of pale  
distress;  
"Sooth the sad mind, which poignant  
grief devours,  
"And aid the cause of general hap-  
piness.†

"For know, beyond this vale of dire  
despair,  
"Know, there's a clime, where hea-  
venly joys arise;  
"Where Virtue shall sublime desires pre-  
pare,  
"And gleam with meteor ray beneath  
it's native skies."

C. S.

## ELEGIAC SONNET.

TO THE MOON.

QUEEN of the silver bow! by thy  
bright ray  
As late I wander'd thro' the gloomy  
vale,  
And told the winds my melancholy  
tale,  
Little I deem'd that Sorrow's pow'rful  
sway  
Could sink me 'neath the waves of wild  
despair;

\* ——— wicked dreams abuse  
The curtain'd sleep.

† Vide Semichorus in Mason's *Elfrida*.

Could'toss my shatter'd bark, could rend  
my sails,  
For ever lost to Hope's alluring gales.  
"Poor naked wretches, wheresoe'er ye  
are,"  
Who wander o'er the world at this dark  
hour,  
Friendless;—with frequent tears your  
fate I mourn:  
But ye, once more may smile, by plea-  
sure borne  
Thro' glitt'ring scenes.—So yon resurgent  
pow'r  
Renew'd, shall shine again; whilst I  
deplete  
Those faded joys, which ne'er shall  
blossom more!

C. S.

## V E R S E S

WRITTEN ON ST. LUKE'S HOSPITAL.

WHILE haughty pride erects the splen-  
did dome,  
To emulate the works of Greece and  
Rome,  
Where Luxury's sons may midnight revels  
hold,  
And waste on masked balls ill-gotten gold,  
This graceful fabric is endow'd by thee,  
Offspring of Heaven, divine Philanthropy!  
Here the wild maniac, whose ideas vain,  
In quick succession, crowd into his brain,  
Who'd arm his hand, if suffer'd, 'gainst  
the life  
Of tender parent, or of faithful wife,  
Here meets a cure—Reason at length re-  
turns,  
And love of virtue in his bosom burns.  
Pale Melancholy, that heaves the pensive  
sigh,  
Averse to live, and yet afraid to die;  
In dire despair, whose haggard eye-balls  
roll  
In all the anguish of the grief-torn soul;  
While ev'ry object wears a dismal  
gloom,  
And direful horror clouds his future doom;  
Here finds relief—imagin'd ills depart,  
And smiling Hope re-animates the heart.

LINES ADDRESSED TO A YOUNG  
L A D Y,

Occasioned by the Death of an affectionate  
Wife.

THE brilliant tear in virtue's eye,  
The force of generous sympathy,  
Sooths the mind oppress'd with care,  
Suspends the force of pale despair:

What

What, tho' keen anguish rends my heart,  
 Since I have lost my better part,  
 Yet her blest spirit dwells above,  
*Where glows the source of endless love:*  
 Would I then wish her here to be,  
 In state of chequer'd misery?  
 Life's brightest views no joy impart,  
 Without pure rectitude of heart:  
 Gay-smiling Innocence and Truth,  
 The sweet companions of thy youth,  
 True inward peace of mind bestow,  
 And make each scene with beauty glow.

## O N E T E R N I T Y.

**T**RANSIENT as the glow-worm's fire,  
 Are the objects we admire,  
 Like th' ephemeron seen in May,  
 Scarce existing through a day:  
 Like the sun's reflected beam,  
 Glittering on the lucid stream;  
 Like the meteor in the sky,  
 Pleasure strikes the gazing eye;  
 Trifles shall we thus pursue,  
 Dread eternity in view?  
 When each radiant orb of light,  
 Shall be sunk in endless night,  
 And our better part shall be  
 In state of joy, or misery.

## H Y M N,

TO THE GENIUS OF ODOURS:

BY BOCAREZ,

The famous Arabian Poet.

Translated by the celebrated Sir WILLIAM JONES.

**W**HAT musky grove can now confine  
 Thy burnish'd tresses' silver twine,  
 While breathing beauty fills the vale,  
 And Mirza's kisses greet the gale;  
 Soft Pow'r of Sweetness! she shall tear  
 Fresh spices from thy hanging hair;  
 Her ruby lip the odour breathes  
 Of Laro's choicest Cassia wreaths.

Soft Pow'r of Sweetness! hither blow,  
 Mix with my goblet's purple glow,  
 So shall the liquid breezes bear  
 To Rafab's tomb, a Lover's care;  
 Thy scented hands the garland bind,  
 To deck Somaia's silken wind,  
 Which dares to rest on Mirza's cheek,  
 When first its morning blushes break.

But do not touch those piercing eyes,  
 Whence unrelenting lightning flies,  
 For, ah! 'midst those destructive fires  
 The Bird of Araby expires;  
 Amidst those flames again revives,  
 And, lo! a new-born Phoenix lives,  
 To seek thy blest salubrious throne,  
 And pass a rapt'rous age alone.

Soft Pow'r of Sweetness! Mirza's breast  
 Shall bring thy balmy pinion rest;  
 Not always shall it flutt'ring go,  
 But stop where Love's young lilies blow.  
 Yield to desire—O! quit restraint,  
 In life's delicious Eden faint,  
 While Aloey fans the gales employ,  
 And odors heighten Nature's joy.

Bliss to the wild unconquer'd bands,  
 Who dwell on Arab's desert sands!  
 Who nobly seize, in gallant train,  
 Balfora's merchants on the plain:  
 May loaded camels swell their store,  
 And sparkling gems, and valued ore!  
 For wealth Bocarez ne'er shall rove,  
 The plunder that he seeks—is Love.

Fair Selma walks the citron brake,  
 When tuneful nightingales awake;  
 She moves a rose in all its charms,  
 To win the warblers to her arms;  
 They come amidst her locks to hide,  
 Or seek her beauty's central pride;  
 They taste her fragrant breath, which  
 pours  
 An amb'ry fountain's lucid stores.

Rich Ethiop myrrh Talozza bears,  
 And fondly scents the roving airs,  
 Which bow in homage to the beam  
 That yonder violet-tintur'd stream  
 Steals from the Moon, as flow she glides  
 Her pearly bark across the tides,  
 Which fill the blue expanse of heaven,  
 In many a shining current driven.

Talozza's smiles are all deceit,  
 And Selma shews fictitious heat,  
 But Mirza is thy full-veil'd bride,  
 Sultana dear! and Odour's pride:  
 Whence'er she comes the grove to tread,  
 The blushing Loria lifts its head,  
 The Milbo's gauzy leaves unfold,  
 And fragrant Ancoz drops its gold.

Soft Pow'r of Sweetness! tell my fair  
 The fierce consuming flame I bear  
 Euphrates' waves could ne'er controul,  
 With all its full impetuous roll.  
 Faithful in love is still my boast,  
 To love, of humankind, the most,  
 My wish a Houri's kiss to try,  
 I live but on the hope to die.

## S O N N E T to F A N C Y.

**C**OME, sportive Fancy, from thy gay  
 domains,  
 And chase the languor of my drooping  
 muse;  
 Drive from my breast care's life-corroding  
 pains;  
 And all thy heav'n-born raptures there  
 infuse.

S 2

Waf:

Waft me to verdant fields and fragrant  
groves,  
Where blooming spring in all its beauty  
smiles;  
Where rofy health and pleasure wing the  
hours,  
And heart-felt joy each anxious thought  
beguiles.

Or foft, with thee, down fome fequefter'd  
vale,  
Unfeen, at eafe, delighted let me stray,  
Well-pleas'd to catch fome sweet infpiring  
gale,  
To chafe thofe clouds that chequer life's  
fhort day.

Lowly to thee my fuppliant wifhes bend;  
Still guide my mufe, but ftill be Virtue's  
friend.

## V E R S E S,

WRITTEN DURING THE TIME OF AN  
ELECTION.

ADDRESSED TO A CANDIDATE.

HAIL to thofe fhares of Rome and  
Greece,  
Who bold in war, yet juft in peace,  
Difhoneft arts difdain'd;  
Whofe words, pledged even to a foe,  
No force could tempt them to forego,  
But facred ftill remain'd.

What transports fill'd thy patriot breaft,  
Fabricius, funk to noble reft,  
When tempted by a throne;  
The monarch faw thy faith fo true,  
No threats, no bribes, could e'er fubdue,  
And thus was forc'd to own:

" Sooner the fun which rules the day,  
" Holding no more an equal fway,  
" Thro' Heav'n's fhall lawlefs run,  
" Than thou, brave Roman, great in war,  
" But now in virtue greater far,  
" From honor's path be won."

Forbear, my mufe, thus on to foar,  
They who are fraught with claffic lore,  
Can endlefs proofs advance,  
Of heroes, who, by being juft  
To public and to private truft,  
Their worth ftrive to enhance.

But modern fensors difclaim  
The thoughts of truth, and honeft fame,  
Bleffings the good ftill prize;  
While, under mask of public weal,  
They ftrive their falfehoods to conceal,  
And palliate their lies.

Juftly the facred writer notes,  
The leopard ne'er can lofe his fpoats,  
The Æthiop change his hue:  
No more can thofe in falfehold bred,  
By fordid arts to riches led,  
Be to their promife true.

Thou happy in the confcious thought,—  
By neither place nor penfion bought,  
Did'ft bow to virtue's throne:  
Yes! gentle youth, that peaceful reft,  
Which cheers each honeft, manly breaft,  
Shall evermore be thine.

Whileft all thofe arts of vile chicane,  
Abhor'd by God, defpis'd by man,  
To darknefs down are hurl'd;  
When Truth comes forth with equal  
pace,  
And raifes up her placid face,  
To charm th' enrapur'd world;

Then blufh, O perjur'd, faithlefs men,  
Your names would but difgrace my pen,  
Who thus your pledge have broke:  
But at the clofe of future years,  
When naked ev'ry breaft appears,  
Falfehood you'll find no joke.

## T H E W I S H.

*Stet quicunque velit potens,  
Aula culmine lubrico, &c.*

LET others ride in grandeur's fplendid  
car,  
Proud of their title and a tinfel far;  
Their ftate I envy not, nor figh  
That I am in obfcurity;  
For tow'ring oaks are oft by winds laid  
low,  
While humble reeds but tremble as they  
blow.

Give me to live remote from bufy cares,  
Where gentle peace her humble manfion  
rears:  
Whileft Statesmen place their joys  
In popularity and noife,  
Let my foft moments glide fecurely on;  
Like fubterraneous ftreams, unheard, un-  
known.

When thus I've lived in happinefs and  
eafe,  
I'll calmly yield to awful Death's de-  
crees,  
With this great comfort in my end,  
I've had a true and faithful friend,  
Not like the pimp, or flatterer of ftate,  
But fuch as could my ills commife-  
rate.

M. S.

MONTHLY



## MONTHLY REGISTER.

## PARLIAMENTARY AFFAIRS.

## HOUSE OF COMMONS.

SATURDAY, January 23.

**THE** Marquis of Graham took the oaths, and his seat for Great Bedwin, having vacated his seat, in consequence of a late promotion, and having been re-chosen for that Borough.

Lord Courtown appeared at the Bar, and informed the House, that his Majesty would be ready to receive the Address of that House at half past two o'clock.

The order of the day was then read, which was to take into consideration that part of his Majesty's Speech which refers to the Corn Trade.

Mr. Rose moved, that this order be postponed to Monday next; to which the House agreed.

Mr. Rose then moved, that the House do, on Monday next, resolve itself into a Committee of the whole House, to consider of supplies to be granted to his Majesty.—Agreed to.

Mr. Secretary Grenville brought up some papers from the Governor of Quebec, relative to the exportation and importation of corn, as ordered to be referred to the Committee appointed to take this subject into consideration.

A message came from the Lords, informing the House that their Lordships will proceed in the trial of Warren Hastings, Esq. in Westminster-Hall, on Monday the 1st of February next.

The House then adjourned, and the Speaker went in state, attended by the Members of the House of Commons, to present the Address to his Majesty.

MONDAY, January 24.

Mr. Le Mesurier prayed leave to bring in a bill for repairing or rebuilding the parish church of Hackney; which was referred to a Committee.

Sir Joseph Maubey presented a petition, for leave to bring in a bill for paving and lighting the City of Coventry; which was also referred to a Committee.

Mr. Alderman Sawbridge presented a petition from the manufacturers of tobacco

and snuff in the city of London, against the Tobacco bill.

The petition being brought up and read, stated, in addition to the general objections to every Excise bill, that compliance with various clauses of this bill was physically impossible, and that, instead of increasing, it would ultimately diminish the revenue. Ordered to lie on the table.

The resolution of the 23d of June last, that the House would, early in the next session of Parliament, take into consideration the subject of the Slave Trade, being read,

Mr. Wilberforce proposed Tuesday or Wednesday.

Mr. Gascoigne said, that although it had been suggested by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, that the further investigation of this important business would be referred to a Committee above stairs, he could not help thinking that it was pressed forward with too much precipitation. He expressed his surprize that Mr. Wilberforce should have so suddenly satisfied himself of the propriety of adopting a new mode of proceeding, and appealed to his candor, whether it would not be proper to allow gentlemen, who thought differently from him, a fortnight at least to prepare themselves. In that space, perhaps, the House might see reason to be convinced that it was almost indispensably necessary to proceed, step by step, in a Committee of the whole House, and to examine evidence in the most public manner. He therefore moved to adjourn the business till Thursday evening.

Mr. Wilberforce said, it was extremely desirable that the business should be fully discussed; but it was no less desirable that there should be no wilful or unnecessary delay. A Committee above stairs was best calculated to answer both purposes; because the Members of it might meet daily at ten o'clock, and stay till three, and that without any interruption to whatever other business might be before the House. For this reason he could not consent to the delay proposed, more especially as he was convinced that Mr. Gascoigne, and the gentlemen with whom he acted, were mistaken in supposing that less attention would be paid to the subject in  
a Com-

a Committee above stairs than in a Committee of the whole House. The examination of witnesses would be conducted by the same persons, the evidence would be all taken down, and afterwards printed for the use of the Members; after which Counsel would be heard at the bar of the House.

Mr. Gascoigne said, delay was not his object; but he thought it his duty to resist this new mode of proceeding, so suddenly resolved on, till there should be a fuller attendance of Members, that nothing might be done by surprise.

Mr. Fox said, nothing could be more clear than that the House stood pledged to resume the consideration of the Slave Trade as early as possible in the present session. As to the idea of a fuller attendance a fortnight hence, it was to be observed, that when Parliament was assembled at this season of the year, there was generally a greater number of Members in town at the opening of the session than at any subsequent period of it; and of all notices that could be given, the notice of meeting was the best. If, therefore, the House should think fit to say that they would not proceed immediately, it was pretty near being a question whether or not they should proceed at all.

Mr. Pitt said, it was an established rule that no more notice was requisite, respecting any proceeding of the House, than was sufficient to prevent surprise. This had been given in the last session of Parliament; and so far was the mode proposed from being a new one, that it was intimated last session, that it would be debated whether the investigation should be prosecuted in a Committee of the whole House, or in a Committee above stairs. So far what was now proposed was perfectly understood by those who opposed it. Notice had been given on Friday last, that the business would come on this day; and further time was now granted till Wednesday. To any delay beyond that he could not give his assent, because it was impossible that any notice could be more specific than the notices already given; and because the House must take care not to incur the suspicion of conniving at unnecessary delays.

Mr. Alderman Sawbridge observed, that there was no instance of referring a business of so much importance to a Committee above stairs; and expressed his concern for the effect that such a precedent might have on the future proceedings of the House.

Mr. Burke said, the House had always proceeded, in cases of the highest importance, by a Committee above stairs, or a Committee of the whole House, as the one or the other seemed best adapted to the

matter in hand. The question at present, however, was not what mode should be adopted, but when they should debate the question.

The question was then put, and carried for Wednesday.

The House having gone into a Committee on the Corn Laws,

The Chancellor of the Exchequer moved an instruction to the Chairman for leave to bring in a bill to indemnify his Majesty's Ministers, &c. respecting the proclamation for preventing the exportation of corn, and to continue the regulations contained in that proclamation for a time limited; which was agreed to. Adjourned.

## HOUSE OF LORDS.

TUESDAY, Jan. 26.

LORD Kenyon reported his Majesty's answer to their Lordships' address, and several private petitions were received; after which the House adjourned till Saturday.

## HOUSE OF COMMONS.

TUESDAY, Jan. 26.

THE Speaker waited till four o'clock, and there not being then a sufficient number of Members to make a House, no business was done.

WEDNESDAY, Jan. 27.

MR. Rose moved for leave to bring in a bill to indemnify all persons concerned in advising and carrying into execution the order of his Majesty, in Privy Council, for preventing the exportation, and facilitating the importation of certain kinds of corn. The motion passed without opposition, and the Attorney and Solicitor General were ordered to prepare and bring in the same.

Mr. Burgess gave notice, that, on this day se'nnight he should move for leave to bring in a bill for regulating the jails.

The order of the day was then read; for going into a Committee of the whole House on the African Slave Trade. The Speaker left the chair, and Mr. Burgess took his seat as chairman of the Committee.

Mr. Wilberforce said, that although there seemed to be some difference of opinion on the mode which he had suggested for conducting the business of the African Slave Trade, yet, he trusted, no serious opposition was intended to a measure, the sole ob-

ject

ject of which was to bring it to a speedy conclusion. The business which they had already gone through formed but a small part of the whole; the Committee had only considered that which regarded the trade in Africa; but the whole detail of that which related to the middle passage, and the interests of the West-India islands, yet remained to be discussed. No man felt the importance of the subject more than he did; but he was convinced, that the most vigorous and effectual mode of proceeding, would be to refer it to a Committee above stairs.

As it had been insinuated that his sentiments on the subject of the African Slave Trade had undergone some change, he begged leave to take this opportunity of declaring, that his conviction of the injustice and impolicy of it was rather increased than diminished, and that no exertion of his should be wanting to rescue this country from that load of dishonour which it had incurred from participating in a traffic so infamous and inhuman. He concluded with moving, that the Chairman be directed to move the House, that, in order to facilitate the business of this Committee, they would be pleased to appoint a Committee, to examine the evidence called by such persons as have petitioned against the abolition of the African Slave Trade.

Sir John Miller apprehended there was no precedent for sending a business of so much importance to a Committee above stairs. The rooms above stairs were small, and could not accommodate any great number of Members; and it was of the utmost consequence, that the discussion of a subject, in which the interest of the nation at large, and the property of individuals, were so deeply involved, should be as public as possible.

Mr. M. A. Taylor said, he could not see any inconvenience likely to arise from the precedent; nor why, in a matter in which delay was prejudicial, that mode should not be adopted which promised to be most expeditious.

Major Scott went into a detail of the mode of proceeding on the articles exhibited against Mr. Hastings; from which he endeavoured to raise an argument against hearing evidence but in a Committee of the whole House.

Mr. Francis replied to Major Scott, and said, he should not easily be persuaded to believe those gentlemen in earnest who preferred an examination at the bar of the House to an examination in such a Committee as was now proposed.

Sir Watkin Lewis said, it was the desire of the parties interested to be heard in the most solemn manner at the bar, where they could have the assistance of Counsel, which, in the Committee, they could not

have, at least in the forenoon, while the Courts were sitting.

Sir William Young said, a Committee above stairs would bring the matter sooner to a point, which, as suspense was not only distressing, but dangerous, he considered as a strong argument in its favor.

After a few remarks by Mr. Alderman Newnham, Mr. Jekyll, Mr. Wilberforce, Mr. Gascoigne, and the Speaker, the question was put, and carried in the affirmative, and a Committee was appointed accordingly. Adjourned.

#### THURSDAY, Jan. 27.

The Speaker having waited till four o'clock, and the number of Members present not being sufficient to make a House, no business was done.

#### FRIDAY, Jan. 28.

The House having resolved itself into a Committee of Supply,

Mr. Hopkins moved the Navy Estimates, on which, he said, it was unnecessary to enter into any explanation, as they were the same as the estimates of last year, viz. 20,000 seamen, including 3860 marines.

Sir Grey Cooper said, that the number of seamen having been increased from eighteen to twenty thousand, on account of a particular emergency, he had conceived hopes, from the assurances of the friendly disposition of foreign powers, held forth in his Majesty's speech, that it would have been this year reduced to the old peace establishment. Since the year 1786, the expence of the navy had exceeded the estimate of the Finance Committee by 483,000*l.* a year; and the navy, army, and ordnance together, included an annual proportion of the increased navy debt, of 900,000*l.* We were now arrived at the year 1790, the promised millenium of the Finance Committee with regard to expence, and he did not see that any reduction of those great annual exceedings was likely to take place. He begged leave to remind the Chancellor of the Exchequer, that the only sure way of making a progress in the redemption of the national debt, was by economy in the expediture; and he should have been glad to see a reduction of expence on any of the three great branches of expediture, though much less so on the navy than on either of the other two. He did not, however, mean to press the Chancellor of the Exchequer to explain whether the causes that had originally called for the 2000 additional seamen still existed, or whether the situation of foreign powers made it impolitic to reduce our naval force at present, well

well knowing that such matters were seldom proper objects of public discussion. What he had said was merely for the Right Hon. Gentleman's consideration, and to call the attention of the House to the estimates of the year.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer said, the causes that originally called for 2000 additional seamen did certainly still exist. It was still necessary to keep a fleet in the East-Indies, and a greater force than had been usual, till lately, in the Mediterranean; and unless the situation of Europe were such as to admit of a reduction in other parts of the service below the peace establishment, to the amount of that increase, the same number of seamen must be wanted this year, as had been wanted last year. Such he did not conceive the situation of Europe to be at present, although he felt no difficulty in saying, that he saw nothing very alarming in it. As to the other points alluded to, they would come under consideration, with more propriety, when the general state of the finances was laid before the House. Till that day came, he should reserve himself, observing only, in the mean time, that when it did come, the state of the finances would not be found discouraging. The Finance Committee had expressly stated, that, before the year 1790, there would probably be an exceeding on the Navy, Army, and Ordnance, of nearly two millions.

Sir Grey Cooper reminded the Chancellor of the Exchequer, that from the first day of opening the Committee of Supply, it had always been considered as perfectly proper to observe on any branch of the public expenditure in that Committee.

Captain Berkley observed, that the Ordnance Estimates were two or three thousand pounds less this year than they were the last.

The resolution for 20,000 seamen was carried, and the report of the Committee ordered to be received on Monday.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer presented certain papers relative to trade and plantations, which were ordered to be printed, and referred to the Committee on the Slave Trade. Adjourned.

#### MONDAY, February 1.

A Message was received from the Lords to inform the House, that their Lordships would proceed further in the trial of Warren Hastings, Esq. on Monday the 8th instant.

Mr. Burke then moved, that the former Committee for conducting the impeachment be continued. And also that the several orders of the 6th of February, 1788,

relative to the forms to be observed by this House when they shall attend as a Committee of the whole House, each day of the trial, be continued—ordered.

Received the Report from the Committee of Supply of Friday last; and, in a Committee of the whole House, Mr. Gilbert in the chair, the Exchequer bills were voted.

The Marquis of Graham gave notice, that, on Thursday next, he should move for a Committee to consider further of the duties on tin exported. The House then adjourned.

#### HOUSE OF LORDS.

TUESDAY, Feb. 2.

THE House met, pursuant to their last adjournment, and after receiving several private petitions, they adjourned till Friday.

The Lord Chancellor sat as Speaker.

#### HOUSE OF COMMONS.

TUESDAY, Feb. 2.

THE Corn Indemnity Bill was read a second time, and committed.

Mr. Hopkins presented the estimates of the ordinary and extraordinary of the Navy for the year 1790, which were ordered to lie on the table.

Sir John Miller gave notice, that on Friday next he should move the House to order the clerks of boroughs, and market towns, to make returns of the different weights and measures used within their respective districts.

A great number of Petitions, and Road and Inclosure bills were presented, and referred to Committees. Adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, Feb. 3.

MR. Rose brought up accounts of the nett produce of Excise and Customs, agreeably to the directions of an act of parliament. Ordered to be laid on the table.

Mr. Morton, from the India House, produced several papers of accounts, which were ordered to be laid on the table.

Mr. Burgess moved for leave to bring in a bill, "for the relief of debtors, the more speedy payment of creditors, and for the regulation of gaols, so far as relates to the imprisonment of debtors," which was granted.

The bill for regulating his Majesty's marine

marine forces while on shore, was read a first time.

Mr. Rose moved, that the House do, on Friday next, resolve itself into a Committee of the whole House on Ways and Means, and of Supply; to which the House agreed.

The Marquis of Graham moved the order of the day for the House to resolve itself into a Committee of the whole House upon the Corn Exportation bill, &c. &c. Mr. Rose took the chair, and the bill having passed the Committee, the report was ordered to be received to-morrow.

Mr. Marfham observed, that as the King's Speech taught us to rely on assurances of peace, he might take the liberty, on the next supply, of applying to the Minister for a reason why no reduction had taken place in our expenditure at this pacific period; he professed himself to be totally unconnected with any party, and therefore unable to form any opinion but from an inspection of public documents; he wished what he now said to be considered as notice, in order that the Minister might not have an opportunity of complaining of surprise. The House then adjourned.

THURSDAY, Feb. 4.

READ, a first time, the bill for rebuilding Hackney church.

Read, a first time, Mr. Burgess's bill for the relief of debtors, the more speedy payment of creditors, and the regulation of jails. Ordered to be read a second time on Wednesday.

The House having resolved into a Committee to consider of the duty on tin exported,

The Marquis of Graham stated, that the present duty on all tin exported was three shillings and four-pence per hundred weight. It was not intended to give up any part of this duty on tin exported for the European market, because, possessing the only tin mines that could be worked with advantage, we had no reason to fear a rival in the article. It was meant only to take off the duty on tin exported beyond the Cape of Good Hope. There was at present a greater quantity of tin on hand than was likely to be called for, either by the European market, or home consumption; and this quantity was annually increasing. This increase arose partly from the demand being less than formerly, the use of tin vessels not being near so general as it once was, but chiefly from the additional number of miners employed. Many of the copper mines of Cornwall having been shut up, in consequence of the superior richness of copper mines in another part of the kingdom, it became ne-

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cessary to employ the miners in the tin mines, and thus a greater quantity of tin was raised from the mines, although the consumption appeared to be less. Under these circumstances, it was highly important to open a new market for a commodity by which a useful and hardy race of men were maintained, and who contributed by their consumption to the revenue, and by their numbers to the strength of the kingdom. It would also be of advantage in another point of view; for if a market for tin could be opened in China, the East-India Company would not be obliged to send out so much silver for the purpose of making up their China investments. Although he was not so sanguine as those who had applied for taking off the duties, he thought the experiment well worth trying, especially as it could be made at so little expence, for no revenue had been derived from tin exported beyond the Cape, except in 1761, or 1762, when an experiment was tried, which did not succeed, on account of the high price of tin at that time in England, and the low price in China, circumstances which he now understood to be reversed.

He then moved a resolution, That the duties now payable on tin exported beyond the Cape of Good Hope do cease and determine, &c. &c. which was agreed to without further remark, and ordered to be reported to-morrow. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

FRIDAY, Feb. 5.

MR. Serjeant Adair was heard for near three hours, concerning a writ of error touching the Mayor of Chester.

About five o'clock their Lordships adjourned till Monday.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

FRIDAY, Feb. 5.

RECEIVED several private petitions, respecting roads and inclosures.

The speaker informed the House that a message had been received from the Lords, stating that the further hearing of the trial of Warren Hastings, Esq. was postponed till Tuesday the 16th instant.

Mr. Gilbert read the report of the Committee on the duty on tin exported. Read a second time.

The Marquis of Graham moved, that leave be given to bring in a bill, pursuant to the resolutions of the Committee. Leave given.

The Indemnity bill was read a third time, passed, and ordered to be sent up to



to the Lords. The Marquis of Graham carried up the same.

Sir John Miller rose, and assured the House, that what he was then about to offer to their consideration, was a subject which had engaged his most serious attention for a long time back, and that he had no other view or interest whatever in bringing it forward, but a strong conviction that if his intention should fortunately be crowned with success, it would be productive of the most salutary and much wanted regulations respecting the weights and measures throughout England and Scotland. The Honorable Baronet then observed, that the diversity, uncertainty, inequality, and fluctuating state of our standards were objects to which Government ought to pay no small attention. He allowed that former administrations (and he lamented that it was so) never attempted an equalization of the weights and measures in this country; but, he trusted, that because it had not been ever attempted, it ought now to be looked into. In the time of Charles I. one uniform standard of weights and measures was only known in this kingdom. How different is the case of the present period! In some parts of England the standard gallon holds less by a quarter of a pint than in other parts. A goldsmith's pound is not the same as a grocer's pound; a yard in one part of the kingdom is not the same length as a yard in another quarter of the kingdom. In some parts a stone was not the same as in other parts of England; the barrel, bushel, peck, &c. &c. were also of different and various dimensions and contents, and a number of other weights and measures, were in the same state of uncertainty and inequality. By the act of Union it was agreed, that the standards of the different weights and measures, used in that part of Great Britain called Scotland, should be precisely the same as those used throughout England.—Now it happens, that scarce any two counties in the kingdom agree, or find an equality in their respective standards of weights and measures, and this was an inconvenience of the most serious nature. To remedy that inconvenience, to put a stop to all diversity, uncertainty, and inconsistency, respecting the standards of the several weights and measures now in use throughout England, Wales, and Berwick upon Tweed, he moved that the clerks of the different cities and market towns throughout this kingdom, and that part of Great Britain called Scotland, as also in Berwick upon Tweed, do transmit a copy of their standards of weights and measures to the Clerk of the House of Commons, to be by him read to the House; and that the said clerks of the different cities and market towns aforesaid, be hereby ordered to send speci-

fications of such articles as are sold by weight and measure in the said parts, to the Clerk of the House of Commons, to be read by him to the House.

Sir George Younge moved, that the estimates of the army, charges of garrison allowances, pay, &c. be now read. The same was read accordingly.—He then moved, that seventeen thousand four hundred and forty-eight effective men be employed for his Majesty's land service for the current year.

Mr. Marham rose, and requested that his Majesty's Speech should be read.

The Clerk of the House having read the same,

Mr. Marham said, that the paragraph stating, viz.—“I have at the same time great satisfaction in being able to acquaint you, that I receive continued assurances of the good dispositions of all foreign Powers towards these kingdoms,” gave certainly a hope that a considerable reduction would take place in the army establishment of the present year, but which he was sorry to find was not the case.—He observed, that in 1775 we had but seventy regiments, and the number of men to each regiment was no more than 774;—that, at the late peace, the number of regiments were augmented to 77, and 864 men appointed to each regiment. Why the increase of seven regiments should take place was the information he wanted; but he would not press for any answer if the circumstances of the times would not permit it to be given. He said, that it was possible our situation with regard to France rendered such an increase necessary—he approved of the alliance ministers had made with the Dutch—it was undoubtedly a beneficial one for this country. We were tied down by France, not to send out any fleets to the East-Indies. But the Dutch were not so restricted by any power, and certainly on that score he could not avoid paying the minister a compliment which he had justly earned; however, he was not satisfied at the increase in the army. We have lost thirteen colonies, Minorca, and other places, where a number of forces were employed; and, since the event of the last unfortunate war, and our several losses, we are now increasing our army establishment—and our expenditure exceeding our income. He said that the same number of men was now at Gibraltar, as was sufficient to protect Minorca and Gibraltar in the year 1775.

Mr. Pitt replied to Mr. Marham, and endeavoured to prove that his conduct, in continuing the increase of the army establishment, was, in every respect, for the welfare and advantage of this country. He said, many reasons could be urged for keeping up an army establishment, were it prudent to mention them.

After

After a few words from Mr. Fox, and some other Members, Mr. Gilbert reported the resolution.

Captain Berkley moved, that 1755l. be granted towards the Ordnance establishment of officers, &c.

Mr. Marham, Captain M'Bride, and Mr. Rolle, had a conversation respecting the fortifications now carrying on at Portsmouth Dock, &c. after which the House adjourned till Monday.

# HOUSE OF LORDS.

TUESDAY, Feb. 9.

SIR William Chambers and Mr. Coufe were called to the bar, and the Lord Chancellor interrogated them, whether the Hall was in a fit condition for their Lordships to proceed in the trial of Warren Hastings, Esq. on Tuesday next. Sir William answered, that the Hall was rather damp; but, with the assistance of braziers, it might be rendered fit to receive their Lordships by that day. His Lordship then directed Sir William to take the proper measures.

Counsel was called to the bar, when Serjeant Adair finished his argument to shew that the charter of Charles II. was invalid, and, consequently, that the election of Mr. Mory to the office of alderman, under that charter, was illegal. At four the Serjeant finished his pleading, and the Lord Chancellor put off the farther hearing to the Thursday following. Adjourned.

# HOUSE OF COMMONS.

TUESDAY, Feb. 9.

MR. Flood requested to know if there was any question before the House, and being informed that there was not, he briefly stated that the *inadequacy of representation* was a matter which required a speedy and serious consideration. The effects of it, he observed, which had lately appeared in a most astonishing manner in France, might, with other things, convince Britons how necessary it was to counteract the rapid strides that unequal representation had made in this country. Something should be done for that purpose; and he gave notice that, on Wednesday fortnight, he would move that the House should take the same into consideration.

Mr. Burke remarked, that the Right Honorable Gentleman did right in giving such timely notice, but France, he said, did not suffer from unequal representation—*no*—it was the despotism of its monarchy

that overwhelmed all representation, and involved the liberty of its people.

Mr. Gilbert brought up the report of the Committee of Supply, for granting his Majesty certain sums for the support of 17,448 land forces, including 1728 invalids for the year 1790; and the same being read,

Sir Grey Cooper said, he did not mean to oppose these grants, he only wished to call the attention of the House to a matter of much greater importance—the enormous sum of 39,800l. which, by the return of the proper officer, was laid in the hands of the Paymaster-General. The House, he observed, had a right to discover where this money really was; and he desired to be informed, whether such a sum as stated in the accounts was in the hands of the Paymaster-General, or whether there had been any error in making the return.

Mr. Steele agreed with the Right Honorable Baronet, that, if this sum lay in the hands of the Paymaster-General, while an act of Parliament to the contrary stared him in the face, the charge was of the highest magnitude, and he would be the first to condemn such a proceeding; but the fact was, that this sum did not lie in the hands of the Paymaster-General, but in the Bank of England, there by him deposited, and constantly subject to every claim that proper authority had on it; and, in reality, from the several claims upon it, it was not even to be said to be in the hands of the Directors of the Bank of England, being continually reducing in consequence of those claims and demands upon it; he hoped that the Honorable Baronet was now satisfied with the explanation of the return made, that it was such as truth dictated, and he hoped the House would approve.

Sir Grey Cooper did not think the answer given a sufficient and satisfactory one for reconciling such modes of conduct to the public. He thought the answer only appeared to involve and confound the fact much more; it was such an answer as he must call that, which was well termed,

“*Litem quod lite resolvit.*”

Mr. Steele, in reply, assured the Honorable Baronet, that the money did not lie in the hands of the Paymaster-General, but though so stated, for form sake, in the accounts, actually lay in the Bank of England. He concluded with paying many compliments to the acknowledged accuracy of Mr. Speer, the gentleman through whose hands those, and such accounts, came.

Mr. Pakeney said it was very extraordinary that, after so many years peace, the army estimates should not only be higher than

than they had formerly been, but in a state of progressive increase. A Rt. Hon. Gentleman (Mr. Fox) had said in the Committee, that there was a certain degree of confidence to be reposed in Ministers. That Right Honorable Gentleman had been a Minister himself, and might be a Minister again, and therefore might with the House be more liberal in their confidence to Ministers, than he otherwise would. For his own part, he had no idea of that confidence in Ministers, which was without responsibility; or that the House was to go on, from year to year, voting estimates on grounds which they were to suppose of too delicate a nature to be enquired into at the time, and which were never afterwards to be laid before them, to enable them to judge whether their confidence had been well or ill placed.

Mr. Secretary Grenville said, he should think those Ministers unworthy of their situations, who, for the sake of any temporary triumph or convenience, should recommend inconsiderable savings that might afterwards be productive of a much greater loss. Were we, for the sake of a present saving, to put our peace establishment on such a footing, as to invite or tempt an attack, the consequence would inevitably be, that the savings of many years would be swallowed up in the course of a few months. Would any gentleman say that the reduction of two or three regiments would be productive of benefit to the finances of the country, equal to the danger that it might occasion to some of our possessions? The true system of economy, in his opinion was, to preserve such a peace establishment in every quarter, as to deter any enemy from interrupting us in those slower, but surer operations for restoring our finances, that were compatible with that establishment. He concluded with this general position, that the peace establishment, both abroad and at home, ought to be on such a footing, as to hold out no temptation to any power to attack us.

Mr. Fox said, the Right Hon. Gentleman had dealt so much in generals, that he did not appear to him to have done much toward clearing up the matter in debate. On the general points, that there ought to be such a peace establishment as would be most conducive to the security of the country, and the prosperity of the finances, they were all agreed; yet their opinions on what that establishment ought to be, might be very different. He thought, for instance, that instead of perpetuating a large peace establishment, by way of intimidation to other powers, it was more advisable to maintain a moderate establishment, to appear formidable in permanent resources, rather than in means of instant hostility, which, when obliged to bring into action, we might not be able long to support. In the course of his speech, he observed, that

in whatever light the proceedings in France might be considered by others, he, for one, viewed them with exultation; and concluded with declaring, that if any member would move for a reduction of the army, he should think himself obliged to vote for the motion.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer observed, that the increased expence was inconsiderable in the balance, for it did not amount to more than 50 or 60,000*l.* a-year. He concluded with an allusion to France, and to the disorders that prevailed there. No argument could be drawn from their present situation against the increase of our force; for even, in regard to them, the sagacity of Mr. Fox had been deceived, since only three years ago he had said, that they were making more rapid strides to universal monarchy than even in the days of Louis XIV. For himself, he saw their present disorders with concern. He wished them more liberty than they before possessed; but he thought their situation must soon change into a more settled form, and that they would enjoy the blessing of liberty in the only way in which it could be enjoyed under the auspices of a strong government.

Mr. Burke condemned the language which Ministers had held on the present, and on former occasions, when speaking of the military establishments of the country. In every point of view, he thought, the present was the time for retrenching our establishment; for in viewing the different powers of Europe, which he enumerated, from France down to the Pope, he was of opinion we had nothing to dread. After dilating on this part of his argument, he proceeded to take notice of what he understood had, on a former day, fallen from a Right Honorable friend of his (Mr. Fox), respecting the present situation of a neighbouring country: He was sorry that any discussion respecting the internal dissensions of the country to which he alluded, had taken place, and he lamented that they should have been held out by his Right Honorable friend as an example worthy of praise. He was an old man, and the part he had to act on the political stage was near a close; but before he made his exit, he would request the indulgence of the House. Those who were not so well acquainted as he was with the exalted virtues and the matchless talents of his Right Honorable friend, would be eager to lay hold of any opinion of his, from motives which he was persuaded never actuated any action of his life.—They would be eager to bring the splendor of his name, and the weight of his authority, to sanction proceedings, the object of which might be subversive of the peace of the country, and the safety of the constitution. However much he loved and respected his Honorable friend, however much

much he admired his abilities, and however much they agreed in their general principles of politics, he differed from him totally in his ideas, respecting the present situation of affairs in a neighbouring kingdom. There every thing was anarchy and confusion.—The established government had been overturned by a lawless and sanguinary mob; and of every species of despotism, a democratic despotism was the most ferocious and abominable. They had an army which acknowledged no head; their signal of attack was the *war-whoop*; their liberty was *licentiousness*, and their religion *atheism*. A noble Lord (Fielding) had compared this desperate mob to the glorious Revolution of this country. But what was the distinction? The Revolution of 1688, was for the support of a constitution which had been previously well understood and digested, for by it we acquired nothing but what we had before, namely, a confirmation of our rights and privileges. We got rid of a Man—France has got rid of its established Government, and in its room erected the standard of anarchy and disorder. Was this the example which his Right Honorable friend held out as an object of praise and imitation? Much as he valued him, if he thought it were possible that he could be induced, from any motive, to head a cabal, for introducing any innovation into the constitution of this country, from that moment he would oppose him. The example of France, in his opinion, had ever been highly dangerous to us. The splendid despotism, and the courtly tyranny of Louis the XIVth, were, perhaps, as much to be dreaded and avoided, as the horrors and confusion that now prevailed in that kingdom; and he maintained there was less danger to be apprehended from France as an enemy, than as a friend.

Mr. Fox was sorry that his Right Honorable friend had not been in the House when he spoke those sentiments which he had opposed with so much warmth. When he said that he was happy to find that the soldiers of a neighbouring kingdom had not ceased to be citizens, he meant certainly to pay a just tribute of applause to those men who, alive to the oppressions under which their countrymen groaned, had not obeyed the despotic orders of their leader, but had espoused the cause of their fellow-citizens, in a struggle for asserting that liberty, the blessings of which we all enjoyed. He begged, however, not to be misunderstood in his ideas of liberty.—True liberty could only exist from the union and co-operation of the different powers which composed the legislative and

the executive government. No man could hold in more abhorrence than he did every species of despotism; whether it was in the form of absolute monarchy, aristocracy, or democracy, it was to his mind equally detestable. He concluded with saying, that if the affairs of France should, on any future occasion, come under discussion, as incidental to the business of that House, he would take another opportunity of delivering his opinion, in a more ample manner than he had yet done.

Mr. Burke explained.

Mr. Sheridan warmly reprobated the speech of Mr. Burke, which he said contained sentiments directly contrary to the principles which he had hitherto professed. He had come forward as the advocate of despotism, and had branded with the most severe epithets, the exertions of men struggling for their liberty.

Mr. Burke rose again, and claimed the indulgence of the House for a few minutes. He expected, he said, that if the Right Hon. Gentleman who spoke last had not heard him with any degree of partiality, that he would at least have stated what had fallen from him with firmness and candor. But he had grossly misrepresented every argument he had urged. Every man who knew him, knew that he was the professed enemy of despotism in every shape, whether it was, as he had stated, the splendid despotism of Louis XIV. or the outrageous democracy of the present Government, which levelled all distinctions of men. There were many persons in this country, he was afraid, who entertained theories of Government not very consistent with the safety of the State. There were some, he believed, who were ready to transfer that anarchy which prevailed in France to this country, for the purpose of effectuating their own designs.—The Right Hon. Gentleman had thought proper to accuse him of being the advocate of despotism, and the libeller of the National Assembly. He denied it. The whole tenor of his life, he hoped, had proved, that though he was an enemy to licentiousness, he was a firm friend to liberty.—But, said Mr. Burke, if the Hon. Gentleman and I are to separate, he may find the sacrifice of his friend more than amply repaid by the applause of Clubs.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer warmly complimented Mr. Burke on his speech, which, he said, merited the gratitude of his country.

The resolutions were then severally put and carried; after which the House adjourned.

## THEATRICAL INTELLIGENCE.

January 30.

**L**AST night was performed, at Covent Garden Theatre, *EUDORA*, a new tragedy, written by Mr. Hayley. The story is simple, and is as follows:—

The King's son is killed in his return from the wars. Raymond, a valiant youth, is falsely accused as his murderer. The King condemns him to die. Verino, his father, visits him in prison, and attempts to kill him, in order to prevent the intended ignominious death; but his paternal feelings not allowing him, he tells his son that he will lead him poison—and departs.

Eudora, Raymond's wife, then visits him, and while with him the poison is brought, which she dissuades him from taking by several pious remonstrances against suicide. She then goes and solicits the King for pardon, who grants a respite for three months.

A servant comes to inform Verino of this good news, who is now distracted to think he has killed his son by poison: mean time Maoni, the villain of the piece, persuades the King to order Raymond's execution; a priest attends to give orders, but is so seriously harangued by Eudora, that he confesses himself the accomplice in the murder of the Prince, and that it was perpetrated by Maoni. The Prince's body is brought on the stage, and being found to have symptoms of life, is carried to the palace for assistance. Verino now appears, and is overjoyed to find Raymond alive. Maoni is dispatched behind the scenes, and all are made happy.

There is much good writing in this play, but it seldom rises above mediocrity; and although the audience repeatedly applauded the performance of Mrs. Pope, Messrs. Harley and Holman, yet, when the tragedy was given out for a second representation, the house divided, and the *noes* were numerous.

The following Epilogue to this tragedy, said to be the joint production of a lady and gentleman of Cambridge, was spoken by Mrs. Pope.

OH, what a subject's here for modern spleen!  
The curtain drops upon a bloodless scene!  
No scatter'd daggers here appall the sight;  
No heroes the undusted carpet bite;  
Nor broken groans eke out the dying rant,  
And leave the speaker, when stone-dead, to pant!

The Heroine, too! how spiritless and poor!  
Cut from her wonted graces—on the floor!

'Twas her's "in airy threads to spin her  
" breath;  
" And, like the silk-worm, spin herself to  
" death.

" On lap of confidant, her eye-lids closed;"  
In satin folds her rage-tir'd limbs compos'd;

Till, in her trance prepar'd, with change  
of feature,  
She starts again to life, a new-form'd creature;

Each look, each gesture, of a former kind,  
Left, with the skin of tragedy behind:

Pert, flippant, playful, pat for comic vogue,  
Behold the butterfly—an Epilogue!

See how on Fancy's wing she flits away,  
And culls the opening humors of the day!  
Heavens! what a growth this rich *parterre*  
supplies!

How fashion shoots! how whim diversifies!

What buds of folly, on the stem of reason!  
'Tis all unnatural bloom this open season;  
And Nature, baffled in her plastic power,  
The extract mocks, the promise of the flower.

Thus may the maiden blush, that fairest  
shews,

Prove, on the test, an artificial rose;  
And full-blown widows, breathing sweets  
—of money,

When tasted, yield—strange compound!—  
bitter honey!

Now into critic heads the rover dips:  
How your poor author trembles as the tips!  
Speak for yourselves, dread Sirs!—severe  
or placid?

Will you dispense your sugar—or your  
acid?

Some smile, propitious as the genial morn,  
And others shake their heads—of withering  
thorn.

Here cease the trifling of this gew-gaw  
worm—

The serious Muse resumes her pristine  
form.

The scenes of guilt from foreign climes she  
drew,

But for the virtues kept this soil in view;  
Where cultur'd honor blooms, in manly  
youth,

And beauty's bosom proves the bed of  
truth.

Feb. 1. On Saturday morning Mr. Hayley waited on the Manager of Covent Garden Theatre, and desired to withdraw the tragedy of *Eudora*. The Manager advised the author not to be too precipitate, as the majority of the audience, in the proportion



portion of two to one, had expressed their warm approbation of it on Friday evening; but Mr. Hayley having been present at the representation, and observing that the main incident of the catastrophe (the production of the Prince's body) revolted the minds of the audience, adhered to his purpose, and took his play from the theatre. In this conduct there is an equal mixture of magnanimity and honour: few plays are produced which meet not with some objection in one scene or other, and yet they frequently grow into popularity, and produce profit to the theatre. Eudora certainly had the merit of good composition; and its fable, though not very artfully conducted, was natural and interesting. Had the stage stood as it did

twenty years ago, it would have lived to high reputation; but unfortunately the tragedy cast is weakened almost to absolute debility at both houses.

When Eudora was brought to the theatre, the tragedy was called "The Afflicted Father," and the incident of the revival of the apparently poisoned Prince was given in description, and not in action. On the advice of a friend, it was introduced as an incident of the scene, and the Prince was to revive upon the stage; but the good sense of the Manager suggested the alteration of letting the audience understand that there was a probability of the Prince's recovery, rather than risque the provocation of their risibility, by making him "leave his bed and walk."

## FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

*Constantinople, Dec. 20.*

**Y**ESTERDAY the port and city of Constantinople were in most imminent danger. About midnight a fire broke out on board a merchant vessel, which was along-side an English ship laden with gunpowder on account of government. The flames communicated to the latter five different times; but owing to the exertion of the people who came to its assistance, and who were encouraged by the presence of the Sultan himself, the fire was extinguished each time. Besides a great number of vessels and barks belonging to private persons, the greatest part of the fleet returned from the Black Sea was in the canal; and it was very fortunate that they could remove the ship in which the fire began, and which blew up the moment it was at a distance sufficient to prevent its doing any mischief.

*Rome, Jan. 23.* The following extraordinary fact may serve to make travellers in Italy careful to avoid disputes with the lower class of people in that country, whose vindictive disposition knows no curb or limits. Two French gentlemen, one an officer, the other a Canon of Carpentras, being at San Lorenzo, a small town at 75 miles distance from Rome, and refusing to submit to some imposition of their postillion, treated him in the dispute with the severity he deserved. This, however, so incensed the fellow, that he took advantage of a moment, when the Abbé had stepped out of the carriage, to attack his companion who remained within, with a shower of stones. The gentleman leaping out to defend himself, the postillion changed his weapon, and stabbed him twice in the face before his friend could come to his assistance. The Abbé seeing the sanguinary intentions of

the driver, drew a pistol, and shot him through the neck, but not before he had himself received a wound in the arm. The postillion, wounded as he was, leaped upon his horse, and drove away; but, upon coming to a place in the road, where there was a stack of straw, he placed a quantity of it about the carriage, and setting it on fire, burned the chaise, together with the trunks, containing the gentlemen's effects. The loss is of the greater importance, as among them were papers necessary for the decision of a law-suit that was the cause of their journey to Rome. The postillion, weakened with the loss of blood, was taken near Bolsena, the next post from St. Lorenzo; and it is said to be the intention of the Government to make an example of him.

## AMERICAN NEWS.

*Providence, Rhode-Island, Oct. 29.* From the alteration of the Members of the Lower House at the last choice in August, many were led to suppose, that a vote, recommending a convention for determining on the new federal constitution, would at this session be obtained; but from the instructions given by a large number of the towns, at the town-meetings on Monday last week, there is reason to fear this desirable event will not take place at the present meeting. However, from the coalition of parties at the last session, in passing the substitute act, and repealing the tender of the paper-money, we expect it is not far distant.

Advice from Charleston, South-Carolina, says, that the Indians in Washington county commit the most horrid depredations

predations and cruelties. They have set fire to several houses, and a woman, who had a sick husband, telling them from a window of her calamity, they shot her dead on the spot, and then set fire to the house. The sick man was consequently burnt.

A Colonel Harling has greatly exerted and distinguished himself in opposing the Indians on a part of the American frontiers. This gentleman, with two hundred men, even went into the very heart of an Indian settlement, and defeated the savages. He then penetrated the country, destroying all before him, and returned without the loss of a man. Every possible acknowledgment was made of his services and bravery, and a liberal subscription raised for his gallant little army.

#### WEST-INDIES.

*Kingston, (Jamaica) Dec. 19.* By advices from Hispaniola we learn, that the inhabitants of that country have been under the most serious apprehensions from the conduct of the Mulattoes and people of colour, who have delivered in to the Committee, that have taken upon themselves the administration of affairs, numerous representations of their grievances, some of which are couched in terms not only peremptory but threatening, demanding an equal participation of rights and privileges with the white inhabitants in all cases whatsoever. One of these papers being presented by the King's Procurator, whose office is something similar to our Attorney-Generals, in favor of the district of Petty Guaveo, the Committee seized on and brought him to a summary trial, when he was condemned to die, and the sentence was put into immediate execution, by severing his head from his body with a sabre, to effect which required near thirty strokes.

This decisive measure so far intimidated the Mulattoes, that those who had been any ways active or forward in these proceedings, flew to the woods in great numbers; but their provisions and ammunition soon falling short, they had been mostly obliged to return, and make their peace as well as in their power: Since this, affairs had gone on very quiet, but, as a precaution, the Committee had given the strictest directions through every department, to prevent them from getting arms or ammunition, and every vessel going into any port was closely inspected.

#### COUNTRY NEWS.

*Oxford, Jan. 29.* At a Council held this day for the city of Oxford, it was ordered,

That their Members should be desired to oppose the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, the bulwarks of the English constitution, erected upwards of a century ago, and which experience has since shewn are the best security of both our civil and religious liberties.

WALKER, Town Clerk.

The city of Oxford have sent the following letter to each of the City Members:

*Oxford, January 29, 1790.*

SIR,

AT a moment when the Dissenters from the Established Church are uniting their endeavors, by every possible means, to effect a Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, this city have thought it a duty they owe themselves, their country, and their posterity, to convey their sentiments upon so important a concern to their Representatives in Parliament, and I have their commands to transmit to you the inclosed vote, which *unanimously* passed their Council this morning.

They have purposely avoided going into any argument upon the subject, not only because much has been already written upon it by the ablest hands, but because little requires to be said to maintain a point which sufficient experience has shewn originated in the soundest principles of wisdom and justice. I have the honor to add, that I am, with the utmost deference and respect, Sir, your most obedient, and most faithful humble servant,

W. ELIAS TAUNTON.

And the following letter was transmitted to his Grace the Duke of Marlborough, Lord High Steward:

*Oxford, January 29, 1790.*

MY LORD DUKE,

I Have the high honor of informing your Grace, that the Common Council of the City of Oxford passed this day an unanimous Vote, that their Lord High Steward should be respectfully requested to oppose in Parliament the Repeal of the Corporation and Test Acts, which they consider as bulwarks of the English constitution, and which the experience of more than a century has shewn to be the best security to their civil and religious liberties.

I eagerly embrace this opportunity of expressing with what unfeigned gratitude and respect I am your Grace's much obliged, and most devoted faithful humble servant,

W. ELIAS TAUNTON.

*Hereford, Jan. 30.* A very dreadful accident happened yesterday at our cathedral. Agreeable to Mr. Wyatt's plan, it was lately determined to take down the cieling, or groined arch-work, of the nave of the church; and four large heavy scaffolds had in consequence been erected, from the ground to within a few feet of the  
arches,

arches, for the purpose of receiving the stone. The decayed appearance of the ceiling certainly required the utmost possible care, and indeed skill, neither of which seemed to have been shewn. Instead of having a hanging platform, or stage, suspended from the timbers above the groined-work, for the men to stand upon, in case of accident, by advice of the director, sixteen workmen stood on the top, and, upon the moving of a single stone, the whole of that part on which they were placed sunk, and exhibited a scene shocking beyond description. A few of them were fortunate enough to jump upon a part that continued firm, while some clung to the side-walls. One man took hold of a rope, which he held for near a quarter of an hour, and was saved; another, after holding by a piece of timber for a few minutes, dropped, and was dashed to pieces; and a third was buried under the ruins of the scaffoldings, all of which came down. I entered just after the accident happened, and was witness to a most affecting scene. Five men were taken to our infirmary, much hurt; two, who had been dug from under the ruins, lay dead in one of the ailes; another is since dead, and whether the others will recover is at present doubtful. I suppose near twenty feet of the arched work fell at once, and how the remaining part is to be taken down, I know not. The side-walls, since the accident, opened more than they had done before; and this confirms me in the opinion that the whole of the nave must be taken down, if it does not fall. Perhaps, if Mr. Wyatt had been present yesterday, no life would have been lost. The nave is very lofty, I suppose, at least, 100 feet.

*Shoreham, Feb. 7.* On Tuesday last came on shore here, from Dieppe, in France, the Captain and crew of the Hound Custom House cutter, belonging to this port, which was stranded on the 24th ult. on the French coast, near Fescamp.

It appears from the report of several of the crew, that on the above day at noon, being about eight leagues from the English coast, the Hound fell in with a smuggling cutter, and chased her six hours, when the weather being very thick, the smuggler ran on shore near Fescamp, and the Hound soon after followed him, notwithstanding the smuggler hailed them, and told them they were on shore; and if they were not he could not seize them, unless they had been within four leagues of the English coast.

Both the cutters went to pieces in the night. The smugglers saved the whole of their cargo, and all the stores and materials belonging to their vessel, and offered to assist the Hound in getting off, which seemed very practicable, the Hound

being much the strongest vessel; but the Captain refused any assistance from them, and saved very little from the wreck.

*Norwich, February 16.* The following shocking murder was committed at Wroxham, near Norwich.—Yesterday se'nnight in the night, about nine o'clock, Edward Allen, lime-burner, and an old servant of Mr. Green, of that place, and John Becket, a butcher, had been drinking together at the King's Head there in the day time; in the evening Allen went away, as supposed, to go home; Becket some time after attempted to break into Allen's house with a spade, without success. Upon his return he met Allen going home, whom he immediately knocked down: recovering from the blow, the poor man said to the murderer, "I know you, John Becket, very well; why do you treat me in this manner?" Becket replied, "d—n you, you know me, do you?" After struggling a little while on the ground, the villain drew his knife, stuck it into the poor man's throat, and drew it round his neck, by which his head was almost severed from his body; he then robbed the deceased of three guineas and a half. Suspicion falling on Becket, he was immediately taken up; the bloody knife and money were found in his pocket, and he was the next day taken before Daniel Collier, Esq; (for whom Becket had worked as labourer) and on Wednesday committed to the Castle, by that magistrate, and R. Eaton, Gent. one of the Coroners for that county. The Jury, who were summoned by the above Coroner, brought in their verdict—Wilful Murder, and Becket has made a voluntary confession of the fact: he is about twenty-four years of age. On searching the house of the deceased, near one hundred pounds were found in the oven, and bonds, notes, &c. amounting to near three hundred pounds more, in other parts, which the poor man had scraped together by his industry and penurious living.

*Exeter, Feb. 26.* On Friday se'nnight was committed to Wilton gaol, Somerset, by James Bernard, Esq; W. Daw, for sheep-stealing. This bold adventurer is about twenty years old, a native of Crocombe, in Somersetshire: on or about the 17th of January, 1790, he drove away from Quantock-hill forty-two sheep, the property of two farmers of Crocombe aforesaid; and about four miles from thence he met a Bristol drover, where they both slept, and the next day joined their flocks, and proceeded to Bristol together. On the Tuesday Daw produced his sheep in the market, and there sold them in three lots, as the property of one Philips, his uncle, at the same time telling the purchasers he should be there again

again the next week with thirty-six sheep more; he was as good as his word, for he took exactly that number from two farmers in the neighbourhood, and drove them to Bristol, where a butcher, who knew of his coming, eager to embrace such a bargain, met him on the road, and bought the whole flock. The same drover again saw him, and by mere accident learned his real name, and the manner of his disposing of the last flock. The farmers who had lost the sheep, and gone towards Bristol in the pursuit, met the drover, by whose information they got twenty-two of their sheep, the other fourteen being killed, for which the butcher made ample satisfaction. The drover by this time had learned where the other sheep were, of which he gave them information, by which means the offender was secured.

#### DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

*Jan. 30.* Yesterday evening the Court of Delegates met at Serjeants-inn-hall, Chancery-lane, to hear the arguments of Counsel relative to the costs of the proceedings between the Countess of Strathmore and Mr. Bowes, when the Counsel for the latter produced a copy of an affidavit intended to have been sworn yesterday, but which was objected to on account of the informality, the time being too short to render an answer practicable; the Court therefore adjourned the hearing to next Friday, and two of the Judges are this day to go to the King's Bench for the purpose of taking Mr. Bowes's affidavit, which his Proctors are immediately to deliver to her Ladyship's. In the above affidavit Mr. B. set forth, that if the Court should direct him to pay the costs, it would deprive him of the means of maintaining and educating his two children. In answer to which Lady Strathmore's Counsel undertook for her Ladyship, that the children should be maintained and educated at her expense in a manner becoming their birth and rank.

On Thursday evening, about ten o'clock, as Mr. Hufon, of Lambeth, was passing between the Obelisk and Mount Row on his way home, he was forcibly seized by two men habited like soldiers; one of them held a pistol to his breast, and threatened him with instant death if he cried out, while the other conducted him across a field into the shell of a new house, where two others were waiting, who holding a dark lantern to his face, demanded him, and told him he was not the smith, viz. the evidence they want-

ed; they then took half a crown out of his pockets, saying it would make them drink for the trouble they had had with him; and directing him to the road, left him without further molestation, though they saw a watch and other money in his possession. Mr. Hufon is very much like a person who prosecuted two footpads lately executed, and who lived in that neighbourhood.

Friday night, about eight o'clock, as Mr. Thomas Whittle, sen. of the Town Clerk's Office, Guildhall, was going to his house facing the Hare, Hoxton, he was stopped by two footpads under the wall of the alms houses, who robbed him of his watch and money, then cut him with a cutlafs in so terrible a manner, that his surgeon has little hopes of his recovery. One of the robbers was taken on Saturday morning, and proves to be a blacksmith in Hoxton town. He was carried before Justice Triquet, in Worship-street, who committed him to New Prison.

*Feb. 2.* Yesterday evening Richard Humphreys appeared before Sir Sampson Wright, at the Public Office in Bow-street, in consequence of a peace-warrant, which he found was granted against him. Sir Sampson informed him, that it was the determination of the Magistrates to put an end to the shameful practice of prize-fighting; and therefore ordered him to find bail for his good behaviour till the sessions; at the same time the Magistrates told him, he did not mean to prevent his resenting a personal insult, but to put a stop to public boxing matches.

Humphreys gave bail himself in two hundred pounds, and two sureties in one hundred each.

William Braydill, Esq; and Charles Baxton, Esq; were the bail for Humphreys.

*Feb. 6.* A few evenings ago, two genteel young men with bundles, came to the master of a coasting vessel at a public-house near Billingsgate, and agreed for their passage the next evening. After this they invited him to drink punch with them, and counting out thirty guineas, sealed it up in a bag, and delivering it to him, desired he would take care of it till they came on board: but when the reckoning was called, pretending they were mistaken in thinking they had more loose money except silver, to prevent opening the bag, they borrowed five guineas of the master to buy some articles at an ironmonger's in Thames-street, which they said they had forgot. They then took leave, promising to return in the morning, and send their trunks on board; which as they neglected to do, the master was persuaded to open the bag, which he found they had had the address

to change, as that then in his possession contained nothing but bad halfpence.

13. Yesterday morning, Sir Joshua Reynolds, who has filled for twenty-two years the Chair of the Royal Academy, with honour not only to himself but to his country, formally notified to the Council of that Academy, the resignation of his situation as President.

# MARRIED.

January 28. Lately, at Florence-court, in Ireland, Owen Wynne, Esq. Member of Parliament for Sligo, to the Right Hon. Lady Sarah Cole, eldest daughter of the Earl of Enniskillen.

30. The Right Hon. George Hay, Earl of Errol, Hereditary Lord High Constable of Scotland, to Miss Blake, eldest daughter of J. Blake, of Ardsry, in the county of Galway, Esq.

Friday last, at St. Mary-le-Bone church, Thomas Bent, Esq. builder, of Ive-bridge, Devon, to Mrs. Martha Barril, of the City-road, widow of the late — Barril, Esq.

Lately, at Cropton, Yorkshire, Marmaduke Harrison, to Miss Neishfield, of Wrexton, a lady of good fortune. The gown in which she was married, a circumstance rather singular in these days, was of her own spinning.

Monday, at Hatfield Peverel, in Essex, Peter Luard, Esq. to Miss Mary Anne Bennet.

February 4. Yesterday morning, at Lothbury church, John Free, Esq. banker, in Bartholomew-lane, to Miss Clara Pearle.

Yesterday morning, at St. Giles's in the Fields, by the Reverend the Dean of Christ Church, John Maitland, Esq. of Basinghall-street, to Miss M. A. Reavely, of Gower-street, Bedford-square.

Yesterday morning, at St. Michael's, Bassishaw, Basinghall-street, Mr. John Thomas, of China-row, Chelsea, surgeon, to Miss Dale, daughter of the late Mr. Dale, of Chiswell-street.

6. Last Thursday, Mr. James Crowhurst, a farmer, at Hailsham, in Sussex, to Miss Boddy, of Ottham. Their ages together do not amount to more than 37 years.

On Saturday last, at St. Clement's church, Mr. Robinson, surgeon, to Miss Abernethie, of Mayen, in the county of Banff.

9. Tuesday, at Bristol, Charles Fox, Esq. banker, of Plymouth, to Miss Sarah Champion, of Bristol.

Wednesday last, at Yeovil, Mr. William Harbin, second son of the late Swayne Harbin, Esq. of Newton, to Miss Phelps, youngest daughter of Edward Phelps, Esq. of Montacute, in the county of Somerset.

Saturday last, by special licence, at Blenheim, the Hon. John Spencer, eldest son of Lord Charles Spencer, to the Right Hon.

Lady Elizabeth Spencer, second daughter to his Grace the Duke of Marlborough.

11. On Saturday last, J. Hill, Esq. of Finchley, to Miss Nocols, of the Hyde, Hendon.

Lately, at St. Ann's, Soho, John Elwes, Esq. of Stoke, in Suffolk, to Mrs. Haynes, relict of the late Captain Haynes, of the Royal Navy.

Last week at Bath, Dr. Stark Robertson, Physician, of that city, to Miss Reid, daughter of Major-General John Reid.

On Monday, at Walthamstow, James Williams, Esq. to Miss Money, eldest daughter of Wm. Money, Esq. of that place.

13. Tuesday, at Canterbury, Edward Sankey, Esq. Adjutant of the 7th regiment of Light Dragoons, to Miss Fremoult, daughter of the late — Fremoult, Esq. of that city.

A few days ago, at Hampton, Middlesex, Captain Ruthven, late of the Jamaica trade, to Miss Brown, only daughter of — Brown, Esq. of Moulsey, Surrey.

On the 12th November, at Norfolk, in Virginia, Dr. James Currie, of Richmond, to Mrs. Ingles, of Princess Anne.

On Thursday last, at East-Hattley, in Cambridgeshire, the Rev. John Sherman, Lecturer of St. Clement Danes, London, to Miss Martha Tash Bullivant, one of the co-heiresses of the late Thomas Bullivant, Esq. of Wymondham-hall, Leicestershire.

Thursday, at St. Margaret's, Westminster, Simon Stephenson, one of the Gentlemen of his Majesty's Band of Pensioners, to Miss Glanville, eldest daughter of Mr. Edward Glanville, one of the principal burgesses of Westminster.

16. Yesterday morning, James Bell, Esq. of Queen's-place, Kennington, to Miss Kennedy, of Chelsea.

Thursday last, at St. John's church, Westminster, John Mortimer, Esq. of Thames-Ditton, Lieutenant in the Royal Navy, to Miss Ratcliffe, of Church-street.

18. Yesterday morning, at St. George's, Hanover-square, Philip Lybbe Powys, Esq. jun. of the First Troop of Grenadier Guards, eldest son of Philip L. Powys, Esq. of Hardwich, Oxon, to Miss Louisa Michell, daughter and co-heiress of the late Richard Michell, Esq. of Culham court, Berks.

Yesterday, the Rev. Edward Christian, of Brancaster, in Norfolk, to Miss Robina Morthland, second daughter of the deceased Mathew Morthland, Esq. late of Rindmuir, near Glasgow.

On Tuesday last, John Saunders, Esq. of Edward-street, Portman-square, to Miss Chalmers, of Chelsea.

23. On Tuesday, at Baltham, in Cambridgeshire, Thomas Martin, Esq. of Salford-Walden, to Miss Eleanora Amey, of Baltham.

# DEATHS.



## D. E. A. T. H. S.

*January 28.* On Tuesday, at his house on the Adelphi Terrace, Christopher Henderson, Esq.

The same day, at Bath, John Lang, Esq.

Tuesday se'nnight, at Cropton, near Pickering, Mary Jackson, at the great age of 104.

Monday se'nnight, James Allain, Esq. of the Grange, near Darlington.

On the 1st of this month, Master Powell, belonging to the Chapel-Royal, and son of Mr. C. Powell, of Covent Garden Theatre.

Yesterday, at West-end, Hammersmith, Miss Gregory, daughter of John Gregory, Esq.

30. Last Wednesday, at the Union brew-house, Wapping-street, Geo. Healey, brewer, and one of the people called Quakers.

Monday last, at Gosforth, in Cumberland, Mrs. Elizabeth Dixon, aged 94.

Monday last, in Cross-street, Whitehaven, Mrs. Palmer, wife of Captain Palmer, of St. Peter, of that port.

Tuesday, at Chester, after a few days illness, William Price, Esq. late of Coleshill, near Flint. This gentleman was in indigent circumstances, but succeeded to a fortune of 5000l. a few months before his death.

A few days ago, the Rev. Mr. Griffiths, of Bangor, Carnarvonshire, who enjoyed preferments in that diocese to the amount of 1000l. a year.

Lately, at Gosforth, in Cumberland, Isaac Cook, aged 90. He had been blind from his 16th year, was well known as a fiddler at country wakes and fairs, and remarked for an extraordinary memory.

At Dublin, John Fitzgerald, Esq. late of Belgrave, in the Queen's county.

At Leghorn, in Italy, after a lingering and painful illness, Mrs. Lane, wife of Theophilus Lane, Esq. formerly of the county of Hereford.

*February 1.* On Saturday last, Miss Mary Anne Kirke, daughter of Robert Kirke, late Consul at Algiers, in the 11th year of her age.

On Friday last, Sir John Cotterell, of Farm-Comb-House, near Broadway, Justice of the Peace for the county of Hereford, and late Major in that militia; he is succeeded in his estates by his son, John Geers Cotterell, Esq. of Garnons, in the aforesaid county.

On the 25th of November last, at Kittery, in New England, Lady Pepperrell, widow of the late Sir William Pepperrell, Bart. (who commanded his Majesty's troops at the conquest of Louisbourg in 1745) and grandmother to the present Sir William Pepperrell.

4. On Monday evening, Joseph Walker, Esq. at Mile-end.

Friday last, in Russel-street, Samuel Roycroft, Esq.

*February 6.* On Monday last, at Bath, Captain Elliot Salter, of the Royal Navy.

On Friday se'nnight, at Richmond, in Surry, Mrs. Bulley, wife of John Bulley, Esq.

Friday evening, Mr. Thomas Phillips, of Leigh-hall, near Worther.

At Glasgow, on Saturday se'nnight, Mr. John Anderson, student.

Monday, at Glasgow, Mr. Peter Bell, stationer.

In Dublin, the lady of Henry Ormsby, Esq. and eldest sister of Sir Henry Hartstonge, Bart.

A few days ago, at the seat of the Rev. Dr. Norman, county of Meath, Francis Lucas, of Castlehane, in the county of Monaghan, Esq.

*Feb. 9.* On Saturday last, Mrs. Thomas, wife of Walter Thomas, Esq. of Evenjob, near Presteign, Radnorshire.

On Saturday last, in South Molton-street, the Rev. Stephen Miller, late of Beccles, in Suffolk, aged 31 years.

On Sunday night, James Jauncey, Esq. of Charlotte-street, Portland place, as he was entering the door of Providence chapel, Little Tichfield-street, Mary-le-bone. He was seized with a fit, dropped down, and expired immediately. The above gentleman was an American Loyalist, and was well known for his constant practice of relieving the poor at chapel doors, and in the street. He is said to have died worth 100,000l.

At Edinburgh, Dr. William Cullen, first physician to his Majesty for Scotland, and one of the Professors of the University of Edinburgh.

On the 27th of January, at Kirkwall, Mr. Riddoch, late Provost of the burgh of Kirkwall, and for many years Sheriff and Steward Substitute of Orkney.

Monday night, Mr. Robins, bricklayer, in Gray's-Inn-lane, aged 60.

On Monday, the 1st instant, Mr. William Hamilton, late surveyor of the customs at Dunbar.

The noted Humphrey Tristram Potter, in a miserable apartment, in Lant-street, in the Borough.

Lately, at Rigion, in Yorkshire, Joseph Holmes, alias Joe Rogue, a laboring man, who, notwithstanding, begged for his livelihood. He was heard to say, a few hours before his death, that it never cost him a penny for meat, drink, or apparel, in his life-time. After his decease, money and property were found in his possession to the amount of 50l. He has left notes of hand, for money lent, to the amount of 500l. An attempt was made to rob him, some years ago, when he nearly bit off the thumb of the offender. His remains were interred at Kirby Overblow. He was near 70.

A few

A few days ago, the Rev. Mr. Ramfay, Rector of Barton St. Andrew, in Norfolk. The rectory, which is worth near two hundred pounds a-year, is in the gift of the crown.

At Cronstadt, in November last, Sir Samuel Elphinstone, Knight of the order of St. George, Captain of her Imperial Majesty's ship Prince Gustaaf, and Lieutenant in his Britannick Majesty's navy, aged 31, after a short illness.

Lately, at Merton, in Surry, in the 90th year of his age, Mr. George Spary, who kept the turnpike at that place, and who, a few years since, had nearly deprived this country of the present Chancellor of the Exchequer, by firing at him on his return from Wimbledon to town.

Feb. 11. Friday, at Hammer-smith, Mr. Talbot, a Franciscan friar, and titular Roman-Catholic Bishop of London, which honor was conferred on him by the Pope, on his relinquishing the honor of Earl of Shrewsbury, to which he was entitled by descent.

Sunday, at Brentford, in consequence of bursting a blood-vessel in coughing, Miss Maria Bradshaw, youngest daughter of the Rev. Mr. Bradshaw.

The same day, in Upper Harley-street, Mrs. Steere, relict of Lee Steere, Esq. of Hayes, Surry.

Thursday, Captain Barclay, formerly commander of his Majesty's ship Prudent, of 64 guns.

Friday, Mr. Francis Allamet, an eminent engraver, and brother to the celebrated artist in the same line at Paris. His death was occasioned by a stone falling upon his head in Greek-street, Soho.

On the 5th of December, at Kingston, in Jamaica, William Donaldson, Esq; merchant.

Tuesday, at his house in Great Carter-lane, Doctors-Commons, Mr. William Barham, Apparitor to the Bishop of London.

On Friday, at his house at the Hot-Well, Bristol, Andrew Pringle, Esq. formerly a merchant in London.

Thursday last, in the 80th year of his age, Mr. John Hall, of Aldermanbury, Poet.

On Wednesday evening, about seven o'clock, Mr. Timothy Inston, officiating hall-keeper at Guildhall. He was seized with a fit of the paralytic or apoplectic kind, which proved fatal in about four or five hours.

Feb. 13. A few days since, aged near 90, the Rev. Mr. Smith, possessed of the livings of Swindon and Codford St. Mary's, in Wiltshire, and formerly Fellow of St. John's College, Oxford.

A few days ago, at his house at Lambeth, — Rowlands, Esq. aged 75, who had for more than fifty years held a

considerable department in the Exchequer. Friday morning, at his house in North-street, the Rev. Mr. Abrams, much respected, and sincerely lamented by all who knew him.

Thursday last, at Beverley, in Yorkshire, Ferdinand Stanhope, Esq. uncle to the Earl of Chesterfield.

Lately, in Dublin, the youngest son of the Bishop of Waterford.

Tuesday, at Lambeth, aged 96, Capt. Frazer, formerly in the East-India service.

On Tuesday the 2d instant, suddenly, on his return from evening parade, Col. Bettsworth, of the Royal Irish.

Feb. 16. On the 14th of November last, at his estate in North-Carolina, Goodwin Elletts, Esq. formerly of the island of Jamaica.

Lately, John Mostyn, Esq. of Segroft, Denbighshire, North-Wales, a gentleman remarkable for having introduced the woollen manufacture into that country.

Sunday se'nnight, Richard Ingles Fortescue, Esq. a Justice of the Peace for the county of Devon, and Collector of the Customs at Exeter.

Last week, at Bath, Sir Abraham Isaac Elton, Bart.

Tuesday last, at Longparish, in Hants, Peter Ryves Hawker, Esq. late Lieutenant-Colonel in the first troop of Horse-guards, in which corps he had served as an officer in different successive ranks ever since the year 1749.

The 6th inst. at Rednock-house, the seat of John Graham, Esq. of Duchray, his youngest daughter, Miss Jean Graham, of a fever.

Friday se'nnight, at Aberdean, the Rev. Dr. John Gordon, Minister of St. Paul's chapel there.

Friday se'nnight, at Leith, Mr. Dionygius Thomson, Procurator there, and many years Procurator-Fiscal for the port.

Friday morning last, Isaac Dent, Esq. an eminent gunpowder merchant in Birchin-lane.

On Thursday, the 4th instant, at Sutton, near Bingham, in the 103d year of her age, Hannah Jenk, a widow of that village, who retained her faculties in the most perfect manner till a very short time previous to her death.

Feb. 18. On Monday, Ernest Kramer, Esq. one of the Clerks of his Majesty's German office.

The celebrated John Hyacinth de Mangelhaens, formerly an Augustine Monk at Lisbon, died at Islington on Sunday se'nnight, after a gradual and tranquil decay of about ten months: He was a studious, mild, ingenious, and learned man, particularly distinguished among the Literati in this and other enlightened countries for his intimate acquaintance with most branches

ches of Natural Philosophy, and no less ingenious in his experiments therein, particularly in mechanics. He was author and translator of many noted and ingenious works. Among his smaller works was much esteemed a Tract on impregnating common water with fixed air, and his celebrated invention to imitate the qualities and effects of all medical waters, Bath, Pyrmont, Spa, Tunbridge, &c. His languages were Portuguese, Spanish, Italian, English, French, a little Dutch, and good Latin; and he was particularly known in the Low Countries, having travelled there with young foreigners. He was a very mild Christian, having many years renounced the Popish Faith. All the Literati in Europe knew something of his merit, and the most noted of them were desirous to know more; it was really great. He had desired that where the tree fell there it might lie, and that he might have no tombstone; he was accordingly buried handsomely, but privately, on Saturday the 13th of February, 1790, at Islington, about fifteen yards parallel with the east end of Islington church, on the north side, aged 68, and had been chiefly a resident in England about 26 years. His height was about six feet one or two inches, a boney and rather bulky man; plain in his dress, unaffectedly mild, and decent in his whole demeanor.

#### BANKRUPTS.

Henry Smith, of Upper Thames-street, London, coal-merchant—James Jones, of Butcher-row, St. Clement Danes, Middlesex, chesefmonger—William Macbean, of Mitre-court, Cheapside, London, warehouseman—William German, of Wood-street, London, hosier—John Whisler, of Sewardstone, Waltham Holy Cross, Essex, starch-maker—William Proud, of Martin's-lane, Cannon-street, London, wine-merchant—James Morrell, of Redcross-street, London, baker—Joseph Dobson, of Bath, Somersetshire, vintner—Thomas Haig, now or late of Nedderley, Mariden, Almondsbury, Yorkshire, clothier—John Jennings, of Sheffield, Yorkshire, dealer and chapman—Edward Hood, of Frowleworth, Leicestershire, worsted-maker—William Willy, of Portsmouth-street, Lincoln's-Inn-Fields, Middlesex, perfumer—Thomas Scollick, now or late of the City Road, Moorfields, Middlesex, bookseller—John Scott, late of Manchester, Lancashire, common carrier—James Godfrey, of Aldgate, St. Catherine Cree, London, cordwainer—Marmaduke William Norris, of John-street, Oxford-street, Middlesex, upholsterer—Isaac Israel Nunez, of Hackney Middlesex, merchant, and Abraham Isaac Nunez, of the same place, merchant, partner with Benjamin Nunez, of Barba-

does, in the West-Indies, merchant) carrying on trade under the firm of Isaac, Abraham, and Benjamin Nunez—Creswell Bell, of Monkwearmouth Shore, Durham, woodmonger—Joshua Long the Elder, and Joshua Long the Younger, of Cheapside, London, grocers, confectioners, and co-partners—Mary Johnson, of Houndsditch, London, woollen-draper and sloopfeller, (carrying on trade under the firm of Mary Johnson and Co.)—James Robinson, of Truro, in Cornwall, shopkeeper—Samson Booker, of Hanley, Staffordshire, linen-draper—Edith Brooks, of Poole, merchant—William Brown, of Aldgate, London, chinaman—John Richman Webb, of Chertsey, Surry, grocer—Anselmo Nathan, late of St. Mary-axe, London, merchant—William Sansom, of 'Change-ally, Cornhill, London, insurance-broker—James Monkfield, of Grove-street, Hackney, Middlesex, cowkeeper—John Cock, of Portsmouth, Hants, grocer—Thomas Burkitt, of Chetham-hill, Manchester, Lancashire, cotton-manufacturer—Christopher Warne, of Sherborne, Dorsetshire, ironmonger—John Paul, of Swan-yard, Strand, Middlesex, painter and glazier—Joseph Freeman and Thomas Grace, of Devonshire-square, Bishopgate-street, London, warehousemen—George Mills, of Sevenoaks, Kent, money- scrivener—Samuel Bais, of Houndsditch, London, salefman—Charles Palmer, of Newgate-street, London, linen-draper—John Collins, of Winchester-yard, St. Saviour, Southwark, Surry, millwright—Thomas Parsons, of Fareham, Southampton, maltster—Thomas Eaststaff, of West Belfound, otherwise Belfont, Stanwell, Middlesex, dealer and chapman—Thomas Christopher Gardner, late of Brentford, Middlesex, (but now a prisoner in Newgate) ironmonger—William Stringer, of Birmingham, Warwickshire, gun and pistol-maker—Edward Wright, of Manchester, Lancashire, silk-mercer and woollen-draper—William Cornish, of Richmond, Surry, haberdasher—Thomas Widdows, of Parkgate, Cheshire, shipwright—Thomas Reynolds, heretofore of Tidenham, Gloucestershire, but late and now of Bristol, mariner—James Lees the elder and James Lees the younger, now or late of Oldham, Lancashire, suttian-manufacturers—William Tory, of Wimborne Minster, Dorsetshire, merchant—James Mac Quin, of Liverpool, Lancashire, shopkeeper—Thomas Gill, of Christ Church, Surry, merchant—John Wynne, of Birmingham, Warwickshire, hosier—Samuel Penrice, of Holm Cultram, Cumberland, dealer and chapman—Richard Walsford and Henry Yorke Webb, of Birmingham, Warwickshire, brewers—William Ball, the elder, of Ipsstock, Leicestershire, taylor.

# The DISEASES and CASUALTIES of the Year 1789.

ABORTIVE and Stillborn		Evil		Miscarriage		BROKEN Limbs	
Abcesses	726	Fever, Malignant Fever, Scar-	8	Mortification	1	Brui'd	3
Ag'd	16	let Fever, Spotted Fever, } 2380		Pally	212	Burnt	12
Ague	1278	and Purples		Pleurisy	79	Choked	1
Apoplexy	4	Fistula	4	Quinsey	11	Drowned	90
Asthma and Phthifick	72	Flux	17	Rath	4	Excutive Drinking	10
Betridden	472	French Pox	44	Rheumatism	8	Executed *	9
Bleeding	9	Gout	66	Rickets	1	Found Dead	11
Bloody Flux	19	Gravel, Stone, and Strangury	45	Scurvy	3	Fragured	2
Burthen and Rupture	78	Grief	2	Small Pox	2077	Frighted	1
Canker	78	Head-Ach	1	Sore Throat	6	Frozed	5
Chicken Pox	7	Headmouldshot, Horshoehead, } 45		Sorts and Ulcers	8	Killed by Falls and several	35
Childbed	177	and Water in the Head	41	St. Anthony's Fire	2	other Accidents	21
Cold	4	Jaundice	2	Stoppage in the Stomach	4	Killed themselves	3
Cholic, Gripes, and Twilt-	9	Impoſthume	190	Suddenly	144	Murdered	1
ing of the Guts		Inflammation		Surfeit	1	Poisoned	3
Consumption	5172	Itch		Swelling	6	Scalded	3
Convulsions	4651	Leprosy	1	Teeth	474	Smothered	3
Cough, and Hooping Cough	374	Lethargy	1	Thrush	54	Starved	5
Diabetes	909	Livergrown	71	Tympany	1	Suffocated	5
Drophy		Lunatick	534	Vomiting and Loofeneſs	2		
		Measles		Worms	4		
							Total 218

Christened { Males 9241 } In all 18163 } Buried { Males 10611 } In all 20749 }  
                   { Females 8822 }

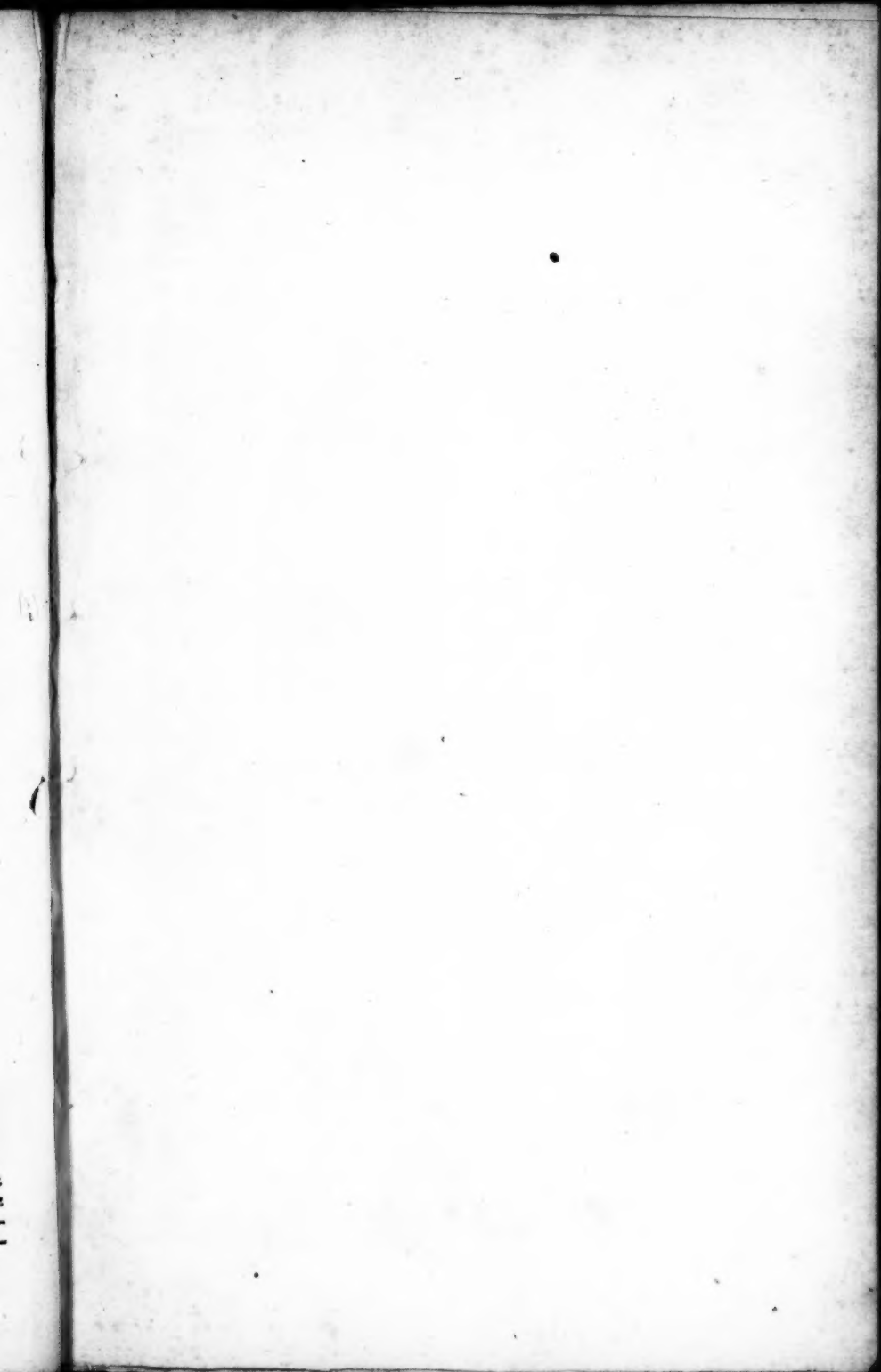
## WHERE OF HAVE DIED,

Under Two Years of Age	Between Two and Five	Five and Ten	Ten and Twenty	Increased in the Burials this Year	1092
6936	2237	800	810		
Twenty and Thirty	Thirty and Forty	Forty and Fifty	Fifty and Sixty		
1459	1889	1893	1686		
Sixty and Seventy	Seventy and Eighty	Eighty and Ninety	Ninety and a Hundred		
1455	1993	415	66		
A Hundred	A Hundred and One	A Hundred and Two	A Hundred and Three		
6	1	1	1		
A Hundred and Four	A Hundred and Five	A Hundred and Six	A Hundred and Thirteen		

There have been Executed in Middlesex and Surry, 29; of which Number 9 only have been reported as Buried within the Bills of Mortality.







LITERARY MAGAZINE & BRITISH REVIEW.



*Anders Smith sculp<sup>t</sup>*

CHA<sup>S</sup>. EDWARD STUART.

*Pub<sup>d</sup> as the Act directs April 1. 1796 by C Forster N<sup>o</sup> 41. Paultry.*

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## R E V I E W.

501 MARCH, 1790.

LIFE OF CHARLES EDWARD STUART.

18 (14) 4.5 (12.6) 87 3360.

CHARLES EDWARD STUART, son of James Stuart, commonly called the Chevalier de St. George, and John Peter's Clementine, daughter of the celebrated John Sobieski, King of Poland, was born at Rome, on the 25th of December, 1720. When he had arrived to the age of seven, he was placed under the care of an Irish priestman, at the house of Sheridan, a person well qualified for such an important task, and a Roman Catholic, in conformity with Mr. Leslie's wishes, and a friend of the church of England, into the household of Mr. Alder. At four years of age, he displayed an uncommon precocity of talent, and rapidly progressed in so far as degree is attainable for infancy exploits. When he was about the age of fourteen, he paid a visit to Don Carlos, who, by the assistance of a British squadron, was the conqueror of St. Charles. He was afterwards promoted to the Crown of the Two Sicilies, and in the year 1744 he was present at the siege of Genoa, where

he behaved so well, though only a youth, as fully justified the high opinion formed of his courage and intrepidity. Being a volunteer under the Duke of Berwick, natural son of James II. who was appointed General of the French forces against that of the empire, in the four-year, his conduct gave so much satisfaction to the Marshal, that it induced him to the French monarch, he bestowed the highest encomiums on his military talents and abilities. On this account the King ordered the Duke to appoint him to be an officer, and to give him a command in the army, and he continued with the Marshal till he was killed by a cannon ball, under the siege of Philipbourg, as he was entering a battery of the enemy, which was then playing on his troops.

From his brief exiled life in 1735, returned to Japan, but he had again an opportunity of realizing himself, by the war which broke out upon the

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